40470

National Library of Canada
Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

NAME OF AUTHOR/*NOM DE L'AUTEUR* LEKOBOAM OLUPOT OKELLO

TITLE OF THESIS/*TITRE DE LA THÈSE* PLANNING PRACTICES OF PLANNING AND RESEARCH BRANCH, ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY/*UNIVERSITÉ* OF ALBERTA

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/ *GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE* DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/*ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE GRADE* 1979

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* DR E.J. INGRAM

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

DATED/*DATÉ* January 3, 1979 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ*

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXÉ*
The University of Papua New Guinea,
Box 4820, University P.O.
Papua New Guinea.

NL-91 (3-74)

National Library of Canada

Cataloguing Branch
Canadian Theses Division

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction du catalogage
Division des thèses canadiennes

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (3/77)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PLANNING PRACTICES OF PLANNING AND RESEARCH BRANCH, ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

by

© LEKOBOAM OLUPOT OKELLO

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1979

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "PLANNING PRACTICES OF PLANNING AND RESEARCH BRANCH, ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION," submitted by LEKOBOAM OLUPOT OKELLO in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Dr. E. J. Ingram, Supervisor

Eugene W Ratsoy
Dr. E. W. Ratsoy

R. Bryce
Dr. R. C. Bryce

R.G. McIntosh
Dr. R. G. McIntosh

Dr. J. E. Gallagher

N P Hrynyk
Dr. N. P. Hrynyk, External Examiner

Date Dec. 20, 1978

ABSTRACT

The intent of this study was to gain an understanding of the practices of the Planning and Research Branch of the Alberta Department of Education. In order to gain such understanding, the concepts of a system theory, especially those of environment, input, throughput, and feedback were examined. The environment was considered the source of inputs which imposed an ongoing impact upon the roles and the goals of the Branch, the nature and extent of nonhuman resources available to it, its clients, and the personnel who operate and work in it. Inputs were defined as information, people, energies, events, situations, malfunctions and materials that entered the Branch from the environment. In a general fashion, inputs were divided into two categories, namely, demands and supports. While demands were considered to affect both policies and goals of the Branch, supports were related to the resources which enabled the Branch to carry out its goals. Throughput or transformation was concerned with ways and means the Branch transformed its inputs into outputs. Outputs were conceived as the resultants of Branch activities, its state at some terminal time, its products, and as a range of its outcomes. Finally, feedback was seen to originate from inside or outside the Branch but, regardless of the source, it was viewed as the literal feeding back into the Branch, into its structure and processes, of evaluative information about its activities and its effects.

The data for this investigation were collected in three different ways, namely, by on-the-spot observation, through interviews, and through official documents search. The data were analysed by means of a five-criterion paradigm or analytical framework developed from a synthesis of the Almond and Powell criteria for evaluating political systems, and the ingredients of the Second Generation of Educational Planning. The five criteria of the paradigm were summarized as: orientation or sense of direction, the environment or context, type of planning in terms of its duration and quality, scope of Branch activities, and connection of planning with other organizational processes.

Through the application of the paradigm to the practices of the Branch, its usefulness as an instrument for scrutinizing the practices of the Branch was confirmed.

The study had particular implications for the practices of educational administration, especially in connection with changes that are often made to school organizations without ascertaining their effectiveness. It was suggested that changes to educational organizations, to be meaningful, should be based on sound knowledge regarding the practices of such organizations. Although there are many ways of gaining sound knowledge, the usefulness of descriptive endeavours could not be discounted; indeed, they were recommended.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere and deep gratitude to all those people who, in one way or another, provided invaluable assistance and encouragement, without which it would have been difficult to meet the deadline imposed by the Canadian International Development Agency.

First and foremost is my supervisor, Dr. E. J. Ingram, under whose guidance, encouragement, and leadership the task of completing this doctoral study was made considerably less arduous.

The other members of my supervisory committee also deserve recognition for the following reasons:

Dr. E. W. Ratsoy, who offered invaluable advice throughout; his constructive reading of the first draft greatly helped in the revision work;

Dr. R. G. McIntosh, equally helpful, provided most valuable advice throughout; he, too, read the first draft and provided helpful comments for improvement;

Dr. J. E. Gallagher, though a member from outside the department, was always accessible and ready to offer advice; he read the first draft and provided useful comments for its improvement;

Dr. R. C. Bryce was equally helpful; before leaving on sabbatical, he took the time to read the first four draft chapters and tendered helpful comments;

Dr. N. P. Hrynyk, as the external examiner, provided fresh and insightful comments on the total endeavour.

Deep appreciation is recorded of the many special services rendered by Dr. E. Miklos who was departmental chairman at the time I joined the program.

Sincere appreciation is also extended to Dr. J. E. Seger, Professor, and current departmental chairman, for his valuable advice, encouragement, and for special assistance rendered. By permitting me the use of departmental facilities, including office space, my research was made less difficult. Above all, the friendly atmosphere that was always evident greatly contributed to the success of the task.

Deep gratitude for the excellent stenographic service provided is extended to Mrs. Joy Kaiser, who typed the draft; and to Mrs. Elise L. Wittig, whose friendliness, understanding, encouragement, and editorial services greatly enhanced the completion of the final typed thesis and within the restrictive time schedule.

Also, sincere appreciation is extended to the Canadian Government Agency for International Development for bearing all the financial burden and for being so helpful and cooperative. Special thanks are also due to the Uganda Government who sponsored me and granted leave of absence to undertake my Canadian studies.

To all the authors and organizations, especially to the Alberta Department of Education, whose works and publications are referenced, profound thanks and due acknowledgements are extended.

Sincere thanks and deep appreciation are due to my wife, Perpetua, whose understanding and cooperation were a constant source of inspiration and encouragement. To our children, who bore untold hardships and inconvenience in managing without their parents for a considerable length of time, deep appreciation is extended. To my sister, Manjeri Atai, who, despite the shock and problems created by the death of our beloved father, urged and encouraged me to complete my task, sincere gratitude is recorded.

Finally, to my late parents, to whom this work is dedicated, my thanks are recorded not only for their encouragement throughout their lifetime, but, above all, for showing me the way.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ABSTRACT iii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS v

LIST OF FIGURES xvi

CHAPTER

1 INTRODUCTION 1

  THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING 2

    Statement of the Problem 2

  THE SUBPROBLEMS 4

    Subproblems Pertaining to Input Dimension 5

    Subproblems Pertaining to Throughput or Process Dimension 6

    Subproblems Pertaining to Output and Feedback Dimensions 6

  SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY 7

    Practical Considerations 7

    Consideration of Theory 8

  ASSUMPTIONS 8

  DELIMITATIONS 9

  LIMITATIONS 9

  DEFINITION OF SELECTED TERMS 10

  ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS 11

2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 13

Chapter

Page

INTRODUCTION 13

DEFINITION OF PLANNING 13

RATIONALE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING 20

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING PROCESS 24

PLANNING TOOLS 27

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING 31

Educational Planning Prior to World War II 31

Educational Planning from 1945 to 1970 33

Educational Planning after 1970 36

Summary of Historical Developments of Educational Planning 40

APPROACHES TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING 42

Planning for Educational Expansion 42

Planning for Economic Development 43

Educational Planning and Social Policy 43

Planning for Increased Efficiency in Operation 44

Planning for Qualitative Improvements 45

OTHER EMERGING MODELS OF PLANNING 46

Evolutionary Experimentation Model 47

Dialectical Paradigm 50

Summary of Approaches to Educational Planning 55

ROLE OF A PLANNING UNIT 56

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2 59

Chapter Page

3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK 62

INTRODUCTION 62

OVERVIEW OF SYSTEM THEORY 63

SYSTEM ANALYSIS 64

Inputs Dimension 65

Transformation (Throughput or Process) Dimension 69

Criterion 1 74

Criterion 2 74

Criterion 3 75

Criterion 4 76

Criterion 5 77

Outputs, Implementation, and Feedback Dimension 78

Outputs 79

Implementation and orientation to task 79

1. Empirical-Rational Strategies 80

2. Normative-Reeducative Strategies 80

3. Power-Coercive Strategies 81

Feedback 81

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3 83

4 DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 87

INTRODUCTION 87

DESIGN 89

Phase I: Observation and Document Search 89

Phase II: Interview 91

Chapter | Page

Phase IIII: Review and Analysis of Data 93

DATA TREATMENT 95

Paradigm for Analysing Branch Practices 95

Application of the Paradigm 95

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4 99

5 ANALYSIS OF BRANCH PLANNING PRACTICES 102

INTRODUCTION 102

DESCRIPTION OF ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION 102

The Planning and Research Branch 107

ANALYSES OF THE PLANNING PRACTICES OF THE BRANCH 108

CRITERION 1: ORIENTATION TO TASK 110

Findings 110

The philosophy 110

Discussion 111

Findings 112

View of education 112

Discussion 113

Stance toward future 114

Findings 114

Discussion 115

Findings 116

Methods for approaching the future 116

The Planning Section 119

Discussion 122

Chapter Page

Findings 125
  The Research Section 125
  Developmental research 125
  Functions of the Research Section 130
Discussion 130
CRITERION 2: THE ENVIRONMENT 134
Findings 135
  Groups within the environment 135
  Interest aggregation and articulation 136
Discussion 140
  Degree of citizen participation 141
Findings 142
  Connections between educational and other planning 142
  Nature of planning practice 142
  The Policy or Planning Section 149
Discussion 152
CRITERION 3: TYPE OF PLANNING IN TERMS OF ITS DURATION (TIME) AND QUALITY 154
Findings 159
  Time dimension 159
Discussion 159
  Qualitative dimension 160
Discussion 161
CRITERION 4: SCOPE OF BRANCH ACTIVITIES 162
Findings 162

Chapter Page

Core and periphery 162

Discussion 163

Findings 163

Regional coverage 163

Discussion 164

Organizational levels 165

Findings 167

Technical Level 167

Findings 167

Discussion 167

Findings 168

Managerial Level 168

Discussion 168

Findings 169

Institutional Level 169

Discussion 169

Dissemination 170

Findings 170

Nature of the outputs 170

Dissemination policy 171

Procedures for classification 171

Guidelines for dissemination 172

Implementation of outputs 173

Discussion 173

Findings 174

Chapter Page

Feedback 174

Discussion 175

CRITERION 5: CONNECTION OF PLANNING FUNCTION WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESSES 176

Findings 177

Connection between planning and other organizational processes 177

Discussion 178

Findings 180

Authority of planners 180

Discussion 182

Findings 182

Impact of branch in organizations and administration of education 182

Discussion 183

TENTATIVE REMARKS 184

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 5 194

Criterion 1 194

Criterion 2 195

Criterion 3 196

Criterion 4 196

Criterion 5 197

6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS 199

INTRODUCTION 199

SUMMARY 199

CONCLUSIONS 209

Chapter Page

IMPLICATIONS 210

Analytical Framework (Paradigm) 210

Planning 211

Educational Administration 212

Further Study 212

BIBLIOGRAPHY 214

APPENDICES 226

A INTERVIEW SCHEDULES 227

B LIST OF OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS STUDIED 233

C LIST OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED 236

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1 A Systems Model of Input Processing 70

2 Transformation Model 73

3 A Model of General Systems Operations 86

4 Paradigm for Analysing Branch Planning Practices 94

5 Data Collection Matrix 96

6 Study Model 100

7 Structure of Alberta Department of Education 103

8 Structure of the Planning and Research Branch 109

9 Sequence of Events for Review of a Proposal 145

10 Sequence of Events of a Project from Commencement to Completion 147

11 Policy Section of the Planning and and Research Branch 151

12 Management Plan 155

13 Assessment of Management Plan 156

14 Review of Work Done 157

15 Paradigm Summary 205

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Education is accepted throughout the world as a potent force for development. The rich and advanced, as well as the poor and underdeveloped countries of the world, all spend a substantial part of their available resources on the provision of education to their citizenry. Because education is considered to be absolutely crucial for a country's development, many jurisdictions have created separate planning units to handle the important function of planning. Education, it is argued, should not just happen--it must be planned to ensure effective use of resources spent on it. As Morphet et al. (1971:36) declared:

> . . . . changes within the context of the educational system must not be allowed to merely "happen" or to occur by default. They must be planned--and made to happen--if they are to result in needed improvements.

Many advocates of planning further contend that, in the interests of achieving both high levels of expertise at the technical level, coordination of planning activities, and effective use of information, a single planning unit would seem to be preferable to a more dispersed planning capability. The chief function of such a unit would be to monitor the effects of existing policies, to prepare quantitative models for analysing costs and, in general, to provide a comprehensive information base for policy review and policy implementation.

As already indicated, many school jurisdictions and educational organizations, including the Department of Education of the province of Alberta, do have separate planning branches to perform some or all of the functions outlined above. However, since many of these branches vary to a considerable extent, there appears to be a need to investigate the activities of one of them in order to gain an understanding of the manner in which it operates. Such an understanding could be useful on two counts: firstly, it could throw more light onto the problems and processes involved in planning and, secondly, it might be helpful in creating new and similar branches elsewhere. The purpose of the study was, therefore, to carry out an investigation of the planning practices of the Planning and Research Branch (hereinafter referred to as the Planning Branch or the Branch) of the Alberta provincial Department of Education.

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

Statement of the Problem

Since the end of World War II, many educational jurisdictions throughout the world have emphasized the importance of planning. This emphasis has generally derived from various reasons, prominent among which have been the assumptions that: (1) man is reasonable and acts in a rational manner in changing a mode of behaviour, and that (2) change which is organized and planned is superior to change which is haphazard and incidental. Ross (1970:217-277) contended that these assumptions are not universal beliefs, but rather may vary from one individual or group to another, according to time, place, culture, religion, political belief, or world view. Besides such assumptions, however, scarcity of resources and the desire to avoid mistakes have also rendered planning virtually inevitable. Consequently, many jurisdictions and educational organizations have created facilities, units, or branches, to undertake the function of planning. These central planning branches are generally deemed to be in a far better position to coordinate and spearhead all planning and research activities throughout organizations as a whole than would dispersed capabilities, ad hoc committees, or even managers, who might be inclined to consider the interests of their own departments or units more than those of others. These branches, like good trees, are expected to bear "good fruit." Since their so-called "good fruit" (whatever it may be) could vary from one branch to another, it is necessary to investigate the planning practices of some of them in order to understand their operations, and the meaning they attach to the notion of planning. Such investigations might lead to a better understanding of the planning process, and could contribute to further development of a theory of planning.

The purpose of the study was, therefore, to investigate the planning practices of the Planning and Research Branch of the Alberta provincial Department of Education. Specifically, the writer attempted an investigation of the definition of planning and the activities and processes that were associated with it. It was hoped that such an investigation might lead to determining the emphasis or trend that characterizes educational planning in the province of Alberta, since agreement on an acceptable approach to educational planning could rarely be found, even among those who have given the most thought to it. Worth (1972:218) emphasized this difficulty when he said:

> In the minds of some, the concept of planning has strong

economic overtones. For others, it holds a much broader definition that considers the relative merits of both quality and efficiency.

Miklos (1972:12) alluded to the same idea when he identified certain characteristics that appear to have largely influenced not only educational policies but also definitions of planning tasks, in a goodly number of countries since World War II. He saw these characteristics as being policies which (1) support the general expansion and extension of formal education; (2) view education as an instrument of social change; (3) view education chiefly as an instrument of economic development; (4) emphasize increased efficiency in the operation of all levels of an educational system; and which are (5) directed toward the qualitative improvement of education.

To assess the practices and emphasis or trends that characterize educational planning in Alberta, an attempt was made to determine the perceptions held by various people both within and outside the Branch. Specifically, perceptions were examined regarding: (a) the extent to which the Branch was in contact with its immediate environment; and (2) the extent to which the Branch outputs represented, in effect, significant conditions in the environment.

THE SUBPROBLEMS

In an attempt to determine the degree to which the Planning Branch was in contact with its environment, and the degree to which its outputs and recommendations represented significant conditions in the environment, perceptions held by various people to the subproblems listed below were examined. The subproblems were classified according to the input, throughput, output, and feedback dimensions of the systems model which provided the conceptual framework for the study.

Subproblems Pertaining to Input Dimension

Under the input dimension, the following subproblem and its related problems were examined:

1. What is the social framework within which the Planning and Research Branch exists?

Under this general subproblem, the following related problems were examined:

- (a) What historical circumstances led to the creation of the Branch?
- (b) What are the overall goals the Branch is meant to serve?
- (c) What are the main social divisions (class, ethnic, religious) that affect the planning process?
- (d) What are the major interest groups in the province, organized and unorganized, that make demands on the Branch?
- (e) How do the economic structures within the province affect the planning activities of the Branch?
- (f) What influence do other provincial organizations--the Alberta School Trustees Association, the Alberta Teachers' Association, the large urban school districts, and other equally important organizations--have in the activities of the Branch?

Subproblems Pertaining to Throughput or Process Dimension

Two subproblems were examined under the throughput dimension:

1. How much pressure do various groups exert in goal formulation? Specifically,

    (a) Are there identifiable interest groups, including political parties, that are involved in the planning activities of the Branch? If so, how do they gain ingress?

    (b) Do government bodies outside the Branch form interest groups with a substantial impact on educational planning?

2. What procedures and tactics does the Branch employ in the process of decision-making? Specifically, attention was paid to:

    (a) the effects of structure on decision-making;

    (b) whether or not institutional provisions exist for consulting interest groups; and

    (c) the factors upon which effectiveness of pressure groups depend.

Subproblems Pertaining to Output and Feedback Dimensions

Under this dimension, three subproblems were examined:

1. What is the nature of the outcomes that accrue from the Branch?

2. Does the Branch encourage feedback or evaluation of its performance?

3. What orientation does the Branch take in dealing with its tasks?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Because the thrust of this study was to analyse the practices of a planning branch, two points which were considered as constituting the significance of the study were emphasized. The two are discussed below.

Practical Considerations

Evidence abounds that both developed as well as developing nations of the world have institutionalized educational planning in their attempts to grapple with the problems of social and economic development. Educational systems in Canada have recently become involved in educational planning. In Alberta, various organs, including the Planning Branch, have been created to handle the function of planning.

As has already been stated, the purpose of the present study was to examine the practices of Alberta's Department of Education Planning and Research Branch. The research was designed to provide a description and analyses of the practices, processes, and activities of the Branch. Such a description, it was hoped, could provide information which might be useful to both administrators and planners alike. In that respect, it could quite probably have some implications for the practice of education, especially in the important function of educational planning.

Consideration of Theory

Educational planning is still in its embryonic stages. Although it is more than the "science of muddling through," it still lacks a generally accepted theory. In the absence of such a theory, those engaged in the process of planning can share their experiences as they continue to learn the process of planning. Granted, experiences in educational planning may come from systems which have fully implemented planning. However, one should not underrate the experiences of a branch that has been in existence for a relatively short time. An analytical examination of the experiences of such a branch could prove invaluable in understanding more about the nature of planning, at least from a practical point of view. It could also contribute to the theory of planning.

ASSUMPTIONS

Three basic assumptions were made in this study. They are enumerated below:

1. That the practices of the Planning Branch have been sufficiently visible to allow the various people whose work is affected by the Branch to make rational judgements regarding its activities and processes.

2. That the outcomes of the Branch have been sufficiently familiar to allow rational judgements to be made concerning them.

3. That the Branch's attempts at evaluating its performance, and encouraging feedback from its environment, have been sufficiently visible for rational judgements to be made about them.

DELIMITATIONS

The focus of the study was the Planning and Research Branch of the Alberta Department of Education. Any generalizations beyond that Branch must, therefore, be made with caution.

LIMITATIONS

The first limitation was that, since most of the data regarding the practices of the Branch were based on the perceptions of people with diverse backgrounds and experience, the scope of the study depended on the nature and quality of the information they provided. Enns (1966:1) stated: "Perceptions are not simple, accurate reproductions of objective reality. Rather, they are usually distorted, colored, incomplete and highly subjective revisions of reality." As Thomas's theorem (1966:301) also stated: "If people perceive something to be real it will be real for them in terms of its consequences." Although this may, indeed, be the case, the difficulty in avoiding perceptual distortion needs to be emphasized, as it is quite probable for different members of the same organization, perceiving the same event or phenomenon, to do so differently. In this study, this limitation applied to the perceptions of people in connection with the practices and outputs of the Branch.

The second limitation concerned the manner the interview guide was interpreted by different respondents, since any slight discrepancy would not only affect the nature of the data collected, but also some of the analyses resulting from such data. Besides, the analyses would also be dependent on the adequacy of the analytical paradigm employed to measure the data collected. Thus, interpretation of the interview guide plus the adequacy of the paradigm constituted a limitation to the study.

DEFINITION OF SELECTED TERMS

The following terms were not only extensively used in the literature that was reviewed, but they were also repeatedly used in the study; hence, they are defined here to facilitate an understanding of the thesis.

Change. Any significant alteration in the status quo, or any alteration intended to benefit people.

Change agent. A person or an organization that facilitates planned change or planned innovation.

Feedback. The return to the input of a part of the output of a machine, system, or process, or a part of the output of a system or process.

Innovation. Any change which represents something new to the people being changed.

Input. Something that is put into a process or a system, whether power, information, an idea, a demand, or even a support.

Output. Something produced from a system or a process, a product or a service.

Perception. The process by which one attributes significance to one's immediate environment as influenced by characteristics of the perceiver or characteristics of the perceived, and the institutional influences under which the perception occurs.

Planning. A socio-technical process related to the creation and implementation of policy.

A Planning activity. A specified form of action for defining problems, searching for alternatives, and proposing solutions to the problems.

A Planning branch. A special administrative unit or division set aside or created for the purpose of planning.

Planning mechanisms. The structures, procedures, instruments, and process of planning.

A Planning Structure. The organization of those components of a system necessary to perform the planning activity or process.

Problem-Solving. The various activities which represent a step-by-step, systematic, or rational approach to filling human needs.

Resolution. The act or process of alleviating a complex situation, or reducing it to an acceptable, simple form; to reduce by analysis a complex notion into simpler form.

Resources. Persons or things used to improve upon an innovation or an innovative process.

ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

There are six chapters in this thesis. In Chapter 1 are presented the problem, the subproblems, the significance of the study, delimitations, limitations, and the definition of terms. Chapter 2 is a review of the literature pertaining to educational planning.

Presented in Chapter 3 is the conceptual framework upon which the investigation was based. Outlined in Chapter 4 is the methodology that was employed. Included in this outline is the analytical paradigm that guided the analysis of the data. Provided in Chapter 5 are detailed analyses of the practices of the Branch. Finally, in Chapter 6 are given the summary of the findings, conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The literature reviewed in this chapter begins with a definition of the concept of planning followed by a rationale for educational planning, what the planning process entails, and the tools that are employed in planning. A brief sketch of the historical aspects of educational planning is then provided. This sketch lays a background for an understanding of the present study, and also provides a guide to the analysis of the activities of the Planning Branch. A review of the approaches to educational planning is then made, followed by a brief examination of two emerging models of planning. The chapter concludes with a review of the literature on the role of a planning unit or branch.

DEFINITION OF PLANNING

The present volume of literature available on planning indicates a serious lack of consensus among writers about the concept. Many reasons can be advanced for this lack of consensus, one of which may be the orientation of individual writers. Nevertheless, the intent here is not to argue for the diversity of reasons, but to examine the different definitions, with the aim of distilling a definition relevant to the present study.

According to Dror (1963:50), planning ~~is~~ "a process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future, directed at achieving goals by optimal means." This definition contains, as indicated by Dror himself (1963:50-52), at least seven elements, namely: (1) a continuous activity; (2) the preparation of a set of decisions; (3) a matrix of interrelated and sequential decisions; (4) action; (5) future; (6) defined goals; and (7) optimal strategy for achieving goals.

Dror (1963) introduced the notion of a process and the idea of optimization. In speaking about optimization, he seemed to be under the impression that planning is done to attain goals by optimal means. This stance does not appear to take into account either political or technical feasibility, let alone the availability of resources. Planning is essentially an action-oriented process, which takes place in a dynamic world. To strive for optimization would tend to negate it as an action-oriented process. In practice, it seems that planner's decisions come closer to the notion of "satisficing" behaviour than they do to that of optimizing behaviour. This view was apparently upheld by Anderson and Bowman (1964:8-9):

> The search is for the best that can be identified or discovered with reasonable output of time and effort in search for comparison, but this will never be the best in any absolute, truly optimal sense.

Thus, Anderson and Bowman substituted for Dror's "optimal means" what they called "the best that can be identified or discovered," and they qualified it in terms of time and effort.

Ewing (1968) viewed planning from a slightly different perspective. In his view, planning is an activity primarily characterized by rationality and utilization of knowledge about the effects of decisions upon an organization. Emphasizing the future orientation of planning, Ewing (1968:17-18) pointed out that it is:

> . . . a method of guiding managers so that their decisions and actions affect the future of the organization in a consistent and rational manner, and in a way desired by top management.

Ewing clearly focussed on the organization, and appeared to pay little or no attention to the environment of the organization. Planning, according to him, must be done in such a way as to accommodate the desires of those in authority or top management. In the real world of work, this is probably what obtains. Invariably, planners have to take into consideration the wishes of those in authority. Such a stance tends to smack of Machiavellism, for Machiavelli (1952 edition:127) stated:

> The Prince ought always to take counsel but only when he wishes, not when others wish; on the contrary he ought to discourage absolutely attempts to advise him unless he asks for it . . . . It is an infallible rule that a prince who is not wise himself cannot be well advised . . . .

But times have changed. Modern "princes" governing modern technological societies do not dispose of experts as they wish. They cannot avoid expert advice because modern technological societies are vastly complex sets of interacting subunits, and no modern "prince" can comprehend completely the complexities of his domain. A modern "prince" is highly dependent on the quality and reliability of the information, advice, and guidance he receives.

Coombs (1970), while clearly recognizing the role of authorities in the process of planning (especially in educational planning), emphasized the importance of planning education in such a manner as to make it effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of students and society. Coombs (1970:14), focussing on both the educational authorities and the clientele of education enterprise, defined educational planning as:

> . . . the application of rational, systematic analysis to the process of educational development with the aim of making education more effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of its students and society.

Developing his definition along the same vein, Eide (1964:80) saw the role of planning as:

> . . . increasing the degree of rationality in political decision-making, through exploring the possibilities for basing such decisions on empirical evidence and thereby identifying more clearly the areas of genuine political choice.

Both definitions emphasize rational decision-making, especially in connection with identification of alternative choices and goal attainment. Coombs, perhaps more than Eide, stressed the importance of responding to the needs and goals of students and society. The planner's task should be to recognize society's real aspirations, and to raise them to the level of political and cultural options. He has to lead individuals and intermediary groups within society, especially those responsible for education, to perceive the population's expectations and to contribute to an explicit statement of the aims and contents of education.

Friedman (1967) appeared to join issue with Coombs, in that he conceptualized planning as a process that guides change within a social system. His emphasis appeared to be directed at the feedback component of the system. To Friedman (1967:227), planning is:

> . . . the guidance of change within a social system. Specifically, this means a process of self-guidance that may involve promoting differential growth of subsystem components (sectors), activating

the transformation of system structure (political, economical, social), and maintaining systems boundaries during the course of change.

Because planning is organic, it is by nature all-embracing. It puts together and joins, it coordinates, it relates, it establishes contacts and links, and, at times, it amalgamates. A professional group, therefore, cannot organize an educational system at will, without considering the situation as a whole. The cultural and political choices which form the basis of any plan have to be made after study and consultation with the public.

Kahn (1969) emphasized the need to have sufficient information, preferably from all sections of society, in order to organize for effective planning. He defined planning as being "policy choice and programming in the light of facts, projections, and application of values" (1969:17), and regarded policies as standing plans. They constitute general guides to future decision-making and are intended to shape those decisions so as to maximize their contribution to the goals of the enterprise. In this sense, policies become, in effect, the instruments by which goals are achieved.

Webber (1963), like Kahn, viewed planning as a process of making rational decisions about future goals and future action. In addition, he held the view that a planner should be concerned with not only tracing the repercussions and value implications associated with alternative courses of actions, but also with evaluating these alternative courses of action and then choosing among the alternatives, matching goal-action sets, in light of the evaluation. In this way, the degree of rationality can be enhanced and the value-choice can then be moved from extremes of emotionalism to that part of the behavioural continuum in which one articulates values and then considers which course of action is most likely to optimize them. This calls for collaboration between layman and technician, whatever the decision or choice. According to Webber (1963:320), planning is:

> . . . that process of making rational decisions about future goals and future courses of action which relies upon explicit tracings of the repercussions and the value implications associated with alternative courses of action and, in turn, requires explicit evaluation and choice among the alternative matching goal-action sets.

In the foregoing discussion, three concepts--planning, decision-making, and evaluation--have been used almost interchangeably. Although they are interrelated, it is necessary to isolate planning from the other two, since the focus of the present study is on planning. Miklos (1972:4) attempted to distinguish planning from these other activities. He suggested two factors or elements that may help in identifying which activity is planning and which is not. According to him, the first element has to do with reference to rationality of means and ends. The second has to do with future orientation, that is, preparation for future events and efforts to influence the outcomes of these events. Miklos proposed a composite definition which incorporates these two elements. He viewed planning as one dimension of the total decision-making process within an organization, the other dimensions being policy-making and administration. According to Miklos (1972:6-7), the planning aspect of the decision process involves:

1. development of alternative means for achieving selected goals;
2. identification of the most promising (most effective and efficient) means;

4. monitoring the extent to which goals have been achieved; and
5. revising, on the basis of information gained, means, and (possibly) goals or targets.

Although the preceding definitions vary in certain details, they also emphasize some common elements; they all attempt to indicate what is meant by planning, its orientation, the goals, the means, and the outcomes. Inherent in all is the fact that planning is a purposeful activity; in fact, it is purpose that gives planning a direction. Without purpose, no meaningful planning can take place. Accordingly, in planning, the main purpose of action is to create controlled change in the environment. The reason for wanting such change is that complex dynamic situations tend toward increasing degrees of de-organization (ecological imbalance) unless higher order organizing activities are introduced. Therefore, the purpose of affecting that situation through planning is either to solve the problems that inhere to the situation, to improve the situation, or to establish a general control and dynamic over the environment so as to obtain organized progress within it. For the purpose of this study, therefore, a composite and an all-embracing definition has been adopted. Planning is regarded as an aspect of the total decision-making process in an organization. It entails the identification and refinement of alternative goals directed toward future and change. It also involves the development, trial, assessment, and revision of alternative means to achieve alternative goals. Thus, the outcome of the planning process is a set of alternative goals and means.

RATIONALE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

In the foregoing section, an attempt was made to define the concept of planning. In this section, the rationale for educational planning is provided.

Since the end of World War II, and especially since the early 1950's, educational policy-makers and administrators throughout the world have been preoccupied with problems of growth and costs of education. In the recent past, however, new forces have emerged that have challenged the traditional ends and means of education. These forces have demanded increasing attention from policy-makers and planners. As a result, school systems have had to make adjustments to a variety of social, political, and economic pressures. For example, systems have had to cope with technological changes, increases in urban populations, and a heightened demand for equality of educational opportunity for all sections of their populations.

Despite these demands, governments have generally been reluctant to commit themselves to planning. This reluctance has served to produce adverse effects on the development of clear educational priorities and programs to achieve them. Educational planning, therefore, has a tendency to be haphazard and incomplete. In developing countries where unprecedented demands for radical changes in educational systems are being heard from every direction, educational planners have been inclined simply to react to the demands, thereby failing to heed Kaufman's (1972:4) warning:

> If we simply react to demands for change, a type of anarchy tends to result in which we try to be everywhere at the same time

> and probably satisfy none of our clients (i.e. those whom we are attempting to serve).

Reluctance of governments to commit themselves to planning has also meant that planning units are ill-equipped, understaffed, and lack incentives for effective planning. Even where conditions have been more conducive to effective educational planning, the procedures have remained inadequate. This point was ably emphasized by Riffel, Ingram, and Dyck (1970:2-3), when they stated:

> . . . planners have tended to be too cautious, more concerned with immediate results than with the development of long-term programs. The techniques used in planning have usually been rudimentary at best, often based on projections alone, with no images of alternative futures.

The above inadequacies, plus scarcity of resources, the desire to avoid mistakes, and the need to make education more responsive to the needs of its clientele, make educational planning virtually inevitable. The tasks of educational planners must, therefore, be thought through carefully and completely. Consideration must be given to providing educational planners with an adequate information base from which to work and the tools with which to assess the state of the educational system.

In an attempt to come to grips with the fundamentals of educational planning, Coombs (1970:34-35) raised the following key questions concerning educational planning:

1. What should be the priority objectives and functions of the educational system and each of its subsystems?

2. What are the best of the alternative possible ways of pursuing these various objectives and functions?

3. How much of the nation's (community's) resources should be devoted to education at the expense of other things?

4. Who should pay, and how should the burden of educational costs and sacrifices be distributed between the recipients of education and society at large, and among different groups in society?

5. How should the total resources available to education be allocated among different levels and types?

Educators and economists, as well as sociologists, politicians, and philosophers, are likely to approach and answer these questions in quite different ways, reflecting differences in their backgrounds, outlooks, and styles of thinking. Anderson and Bowman (1964:9) viewed educational planning as existing in two distinct situations. In the first place, they contended that educational planning should be treated as an adjunct of economic planning; and, secondly, it should be viewed and treated in its own right. When treated as an adjunct of economic planning, it should constitute an extension of manpower planning and, as such, it ought to reflect production and employment as its prime orientation and goals. Viewed in its own right, it should take on aims as manifold and complex as the functions expected of educational systems. Under this view, it ought to take into consideration political, social, and economic aspects of planning. This general concept of educational planning was apparently held by the Mediterranean Regional Countries Project, 1960. For example, Poignant (1967:36-40) saw educational planning as consisting of the determination of resources, including personnel and physical facilities. He argued that when educational planning takes place under this broad framework of social and economic planning, educational planners ought to know the objectives and techniques of the master plan. Poignant's viewpoint was clearly directed at planned economies. In the unplanned economies, such a thing as the master plan is, of course, non-existent. Harbison (1967: 22) felt that it was not right for an educational planner to be subordinated to the whim and fantasy of a general economic development planner. He put his case this way:

> . . . the effective educational planner . . . should never, under any circumstances, assume that he must be subordinate and subject to the whim and fantasy of the general economic development planner.

Harbison was apparently arguing for a clear separation of educational planners from economic planners, a position that is rather difficult to attain in today's world, since economics affects almost every aspect of human endeavour. However, it all depends upon a definition that may be attributed to the term subordination. If it means that educational planners have to wait for directives from general economic planners for them to do their job at all, this writer would certainly be inclined to agree with Harbison. But if it means that educational planners have to take into consideration the views expressed by general economic planners, it would seem unrealistic for an educational planner to ignore such information, especially where it is based on prevailing conditions of the economy.

That the history of educational planning reveals a number of serious drawbacks and problems is undeniable. Further, that opinions are diverse as to what should constitute the major focus or emphasis of educational planning is natural, since these emphases are bound to differ from country to country and even from community to community. Despite these apparent differences, the primary problem facing all educational planners is how to get more and better education from the resources available. More and better education does not mean simply more of the same curriculum and methods for more people, or a retreat to yesterday's standards; it means a broadening and continuity of educational opportunities of many sorts, for many purposes. The conception of more and better education cannot be fulfilled by merely expanding existing educational establishments while retaining their old image. It does require revolutionary changes in existing educational structures, content, and methods in order to match the evolving needs of individuals and nations in a rapidly changing world. This is the challenge that educational planners are faced with throughout the world. As Kahn (1969:61) put it:

> . . . [the] planners' most serious decision and major contribution is what may be called the formulation or definition of the planning task. The "task" is formulated through a constant playing back between an assessment of the relevant aspects of social reality and the preferences of the relevant community. Each of these two factors affects and modifies the perceptions of the other. The task of definition appears as an integration of the two . . . .

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING PROCESS

The educational planning process entails the study of educational goals and their priorities; of alternative ways and means of accomplishing them; of possible future conditions; and of unforeseen events and how to deal with them. Accordingly, the purposes of educational planning have to do with the critical examination of alternative courses of action; the stimulation of ideas about averting conflicts between competing priorities, and about the strategies for managing programs; the identification of problems; and the generation of data to be used in evaluating programs. In short, the planning process involves the selection of goals, development of alternative means, monitoring for goal attainment, and revision of means and ends.

The crucial point that must be borne in mind regarding the planning process is that it has to refer to the whole system. That is, it must coordinate decisions and policies relating to the different sectors and levels of the educational system. In addition, planning must encompass the various objectives of the educational system, and the relation they bear to one another. The question of objectives has profound implications for the apparatus of administration and control. Traditionally, even in centrally controlled educational systems, the emphasis is usually on the administration of an existing set of institutions. Policy is said to be decided by politicians, with the advice of civil servants, and the administration acts according to these decisions. Once any changes have been made as a result of policy decisions, the emphasis is on the conservation of existing arrangements. Two things tend to result: the system tends to be static, and policy and administration are divorced to a great extent. Through educational planning, however, radical changes are introduced into the traditional system. First, there is the element of coordination. Second, the gap between administration and policy-making is narrowed. Consequently, in the new situation, policy decisions are made in the light of perceived requirements of various parts of the educational system itself. In a dynamic and complex system, administrators become involved in policy because policy decisions are needed quickly and often; the policymaker, in turn, becomes familiar with administrative problems and "technicalities" if he is to be effective. Riffel, Ingram, and Dyck (1970:9) emphasized this point when they considered educational planning as a combination of several elements:

> . . . educational planning should be thought of as a combination of
>
> *a management tool* which will support decision-makers by improving procedures for setting educational priorities and guiding the implementation of priority programs.
>
> *a coordinating tool* for improving the organization of the components of programs as well as for articulating the programs with other activities outside of their immediate scope.
>
> *an up-to-date guidance system* which will allow programs to be responsive to changing circumstances but which will be firm enough to assure the continuity and consistency of programs.
>
> *a source of the best information and most competent personnel* for each phase of the planning process.

There is no doubt that the planning process is a combination of many elements, including those listed above. Lyons (1967:67), for example, while stressing that this process could be flexible, and that different countries could choose their own form of planning, identified certain basic, and therefore common, elements to all types of planning:

> 1. Diagnosis and appraisal of the existing educational system, its performance and main problems;
>
> 2. Determination of basic policies and the setting of basic directives, priorities, and targets for their achievement . . . in view of the need to integrate educational development with the nation's economic and social development;
>
> 3. Translation of overall targets into specific educational programs, projects and social development plans . . . ;
>
> 4. Implementation of plans, programs and projects by action at the central, regional, and local levels, supported by annual

> budgets . . . . Co-operation between public and private education and attention to non-formal as well as formal education are essential to this;
>
> 5. Evaluation and revision of plans in the light of achievements and new developments.

Thus, Lyons's five elements are similar to Miklos's formulations of planning as an aspect of the decision-making process. In this thesis, the above formulations regarding the planning process are acceptable. In addition, the Ingram, Riffel, and Dyck (1970) formulation, described earlier, is also acceptable. All three formulations are acceptable since they are consistent with the definition of the concept of planning provided earlier in this chapter.

PLANNING TOOLS

In the foregoing section, planning was considered, among other things, as a dimension of the total decision-making process within an organization. In this section, an examination is made of some of the tools considered necessary for planning.

Although information cannot be regarded as a tool, it is, nevertheless, the most basic necessity for planning. Without information, no realistic planning is possible, although there have been many attempts made at planning educational systems with little or no information at all. For the planning process to be effective, it needs accurate and relevant information from all sections of the clientele served, thus enabling educational planners to effect necessary changes in the educational enterprise based on the needs of the clientele. Mehrens and Lehmann (1973:4) emphasized this need:

> The most basic rationale . . . is that educational decisions must be based on information, that this information should be . . . accurate, and that the responsibility of gathering, using . . . that information belongs to educators.

Notwithstanding the nature and purposes of the decisions one has to make, the need for adequate and accurate information can hardly be overemphasized--it is a basic necessity. In fact, decisions made with little or no information at all invariably tend to be generally poor decisions, a view supported by Mehrens and Lehmann (1973:3):

> Whoever makes a decision, and whether the decision be great or small, it should be based on as much and as accurate information as possible. The more, and more accurate, the information on which a decision is based, the better that decision is likely to be.

As a matter of fact, many scholars who have studied decision-making define a good decision as one that is based on *all* relevant information. Since education everywhere finds itself in a changed and changing environment, the need for accurate information in planning cannot be emphasized enough. Whereas earlier approaches to planning tended to focus on specific objectives--such as meeting manpower or demand requirements, or increasing efficiency--present conditions force planning to be concerned with a great variety of goals--individual, social, and economic. The emphasis is not on obtaining one particular output, but on reshaping the entire process and the structures that have been developed. In order to accomplish these objectives, old planning techniques or tools need to be improved, and new ones need to be added. Included among these will be: effective means for developing quantitative and qualitative forecasts; the monitoring of current policies and practices; analyses of the decision-making process; and greater reliance upon research than in the past. Planning activities also become heavily dependent upon effective methods of gathering and distributing information. This point was aptly emphasized by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)(1970b: 9-10), which stated:

> The educational planners of the 1970's will need information systems to meet routine operational needs, to explore alternative long-term strategies and goals prior to strategic decisions about innovations, to monitor and evaluate policy and programmed implementation and to service the flow of information between policy, planning, and administration.

All these concerns point to the necessity of employing suitable tools for carrying out planning activities. To this end, several planning tools have been developed and are being used with varying degrees of success. Perhaps the most basic instrument in educational planning is statistical analysis, which is extremely useful in bringing to light such problems as youth unemployment (Callaway, 1971), demographic data (Chan, 1969), and the cost of educational plans (Vaisey and Chesswas, 1967).

Mathematical models have also been used in several developing countries, especially in Latin America. These models were used for planning human resource developments involving demographic analyses and the projections of manpower needs for the future (Davis, 1966). In recent years, the use of computer programs as planning tools has also gained some popularity. Basically, these computer programs are more or less simulation models which have proved to be quite useful in administrative decision-making. Perhaps one of the best examples of these computer programs is the Resource Requirement Prediction Model (RRPM) which has been used in several parts of the world, including Alberta, Canada. This model enables planners to calculate financial, staff, and facilities requirements (Judy, 1970:115-122).

In addition to the above, an increasing number of operations research and budgeting techniques have been developed for use in educational planning. Many of these techniques are often regarded as mere approaches to planning rather than planning tools. How one looks at them is really unimportant; what is of far greater importance is the use to which they are put. For example: the Program, Evaluation, Review Techniques (PERT) has proven to be a viable means for intelligently scheduling the time necessary for accomplishing a task. It aids planning, highlights areas for management attention, aids communications, saves time, focusses attention on coordinative actions, forecasts probability of success, displays status and progress, and allows evaluation of contractors and contracting agencies. Thus, PERT can be a powerful tool for planning, although it cannot replace sound management. In fact, PERT does not solve problems. In supporting this view, Immegart and Pilecki (1973:155) explained:

> In itself, PERT solves no problems. From it, however, an analysis of the systematic functioning is readily available with easily recognizable clues for the redistribution of energies when necessary in order to ensure a desired outcome.

Several other tools--such as the Planning, Programming, and Budgeting System (PPBS) and Planning, Programming, Budgeting and Evaluation System (PPBES)--have proven to be most useful. Basically, PPBS is rational planning, the optimization of scarcity, and systematic allocations of limited resources. It involves long-range projections of goals for organizational units or activities in terms of precise objectives, with systematic cost-benefit analyses of alternative strategies and a resulting multi-staged financial plan to ensure maximum organizational goal realization through optimum use of resources. PPBS represents analysis before the fact, as opposed to after-the-fact analysis, and implies continual evaluation and review of both organizational goals and the financial strategy for realizing those goals. This aspect of continual evaluation and review of both the organizational goals and the financial strategy makes PPBS a valuable tool in planning.

In the ensuing section, a sketch of the historical aspects of educational planning is provided, followed by a review of approaches to educational planning.

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Educational Planning Prior to World War II

Coombs (1970:17) asserted that today's educational planning can claim an unbroken ancestry running back to ancient times:

> . . . the Spartans, some 2500 years ago, planned their education to fit their well-defined military, social and economic objectives. Plato in his Republic offered an education plan to serve the leadership needs and political purposes of Athens. China during the Han Dynasties and Peru of the Incas planned their education to fit their particular public purposes.

These early examples cited by Coombs emphasize the important function of educational planning in linking a society's educational system to its goals, whatever they may be. Later examples, however, show how educational planning was resorted to in periods of great social and intellectual ferment to change societies to fit new goals. For example, in the middle of the sixteenth century, Knox proposed a plan for a national system of schools and colleges designed to give the Scots a combination of spiritual salvation and material well-being. In the late eighteenth century and on into the nineteenth century, new liberalism in Europe produced what Coombs (1970:17) called a "bumper crop" of proposals such as "an educational plan," and "reform of teaching," with the aim of social reform and uplift. Perhaps the best known of these were:

1. Diderot's "Plan d'une Universite pour le Gouvernement de Russe," which was prepared at the request of Catherine II.

2. Rousseau's plan for providing an education to every Polish citizen.

3. The first Five-Year Plan of the Soviet Union, 1923.

The third example was, of course, the earliest of the modern attempts at employing educational planning to help realize or forge a new society. Although the Soviet Plan's initial methodologies were crude in comparison with today's modern standards, Coombs (1970:18) accorded favourable comments for it:

> . . . the first of a continuous and comprehensive planning process which eventually helped transform--in less than fifty years--a nation which began two-thirds illiterate into one of the world's most educationally developed nations.

The examples cited above varied greatly in scope, objectives, and complexity. Some applied to whole nations, others to individual institutions; some, needless to say, were far more effective than others. Their common aim was, essentially, to provide for the continuity and viability of educational establishments, and to effect such gradual expansion and improvement according to prevailing circumstances. Generally, contributions which education made to students and society were not subjected to annual scrutiny; they were taken for granted. The major focus of planning was on the mechanics and logistics of education, on the needs of the system, not on those of the students and society. Before World War II, four features appeared to characterize educational planning in many parts of the world. Coombs (1970:19) identified these features to be:

1. Short range in its perspectives, extending only to the next budget year.

2. Fragmentary in its coverage of the educational system, the parts of the system being planned independently of one another;

3. Non-integrated in the sense that educational institutions were planned autonomously without explicit ties to the evolving needs and trends of society and the economy at large; and

4. A non-dynamic kind of planning which assumed an essentially static educational model that would retain its main features intact every year.

The above characteristics persisted well into the 1960's.

Educational Planning from 1945 to 1970

The end of World War II ushered in problems and demands never before dreamed of. Educational systems experienced changes--scientific and technical, economic and demographic, political and cultural--that shook the very foundations of the apparent stability that had existed for a long time. The effects of these changes brought into being different kinds of planning, varying from country to country. On the whole, there were similarities among the industrialized countries, and the same was true of the developing countries. In an attempt to cope with these changes, the industrialized world went through four phases of educational planning, identified by Coombs (1970:20) as being: (1) the reconstruction phase; (2) the manpower shortage phase; (3) the rampant expansion phase; and (4) the innovative phase. All these phases yielded new crops of planning and forecasting procedures.

In the developing nations, however, educational needs were even larger and more urgent. As a result, in the 1950's developing nations responded to their problems with a strategy of linear expansion. Ambitious targets were set, with special emphasis on the case for manpower approach. Since neither the developed nor the developing world had the skills for engaging in manpower planning, a great number of problems was encountered:

1. Wasteful imbalances occurred within the educational systems arising from lack of coordination in the expansion of primary, secondary, and higher education. Further, even at any one level, the necessary flows of such components as teachers, buildings, equipment, textbooks, and so on, had not been carefully projected, scheduled, or programmed. This resulted in a series of self-defeating disparities. Coombs (1970:26) illustrated this problem by citing what he regarded as being a familiar type case:

> School construction received an excessive priority while the expansion of teacher training and textbook supplies was shortchanged. The eventual result was that the new pupils turned up in new classrooms only to find themselves with no teacher or textbooks. Sometimes the reverse happened; there were teachers and

pupils but no classrooms.

2. The demand for education far exceeded the capacity of the systems. This problem culminated from: (a) the bold targets that were set; (b) the grandiose promises that were made; and (c) the very expansion which triggered off an increase in popular expectations and educational demand.

3. Rising costs of education could not be matched with a country's ability to pay (revenues). The targets set had proved to be economically unrealistic.

4. Besides money, other non-financial bottlenecks plagued the systems, of which some were: (a) the limited ability of educational systems to plan and to transform plans and money into desired outcomes or results; (b) the long period of time required to recruit and develop competent staffs for new schools and universities; and (c) the limited capacity of local construction industries.

5. Also encountered was lack of jobs for those educated. With diminishing job prospects at home, the problem of "brain drain" set in.

6. The kind of education offered was frequently irrelevant, but this could, perhaps, be regarded as the price these countries had to pay for the strategy of linear expansion. Coupled with this irrelevancy was the tragedy of massive drop-out rates.

The above problems--and many others--could have been avoided, or at least minimized, with good educational planning. As Coombs (1970: 31) wrote, ". . . good educational planning might have given them clearer eyes to see with and a better informed judgement with which to face decisions." The same statement could, perhaps, be made regarding the industrialized nations as well--considering their far greater human and material resources, their longer experience, and the greater inherent strengths of their educational systems.

Although many problems were encountered, there was a generally increased awareness of the need for educational planning, coupled with a trend toward broadening the range of concerns that such planning ought to take into account. Consequently, developments after 1970 moved in the direction of overcoming the limitations, inadequacies, and problems encountered in earlier attempts at planning. These developments came to be known as the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" (OECD, 1970:1). They are examined in the following section.

Educational Planning after 1970

Discussions among educational leaders and economists distilled a new methodology of educational planning which aimed at overcoming some of the problems experienced in the earlier style. This new methodology, containing certain important features, or ingredients, of planning, received different emphases from various scholars. On the whole, it was possible to identify seven quite generally accepted ingredients of the new methodology. Coombs (1970:33-37) summarized five of these seven ingredients.

First, educational planning should take a long-range view. It should have a short-range (one or two years), a middle-range (four to five years), and a long-range (ten to fifteen years) perspective. To Coombs, many of the pitfalls experienced by most countries emanated from placing greater emphasis on certain phases at the expense of others.

Second, educational planning should be comprehensive; it should concern itself with the whole educational system to ensure the harmonious development of its various component parts. In addition, it should concern itself with the non-formal education and training necessary to ensure their effective integration with formal education, based on the priority needs and goals of society. In Coombs's opinion, previous attempts at educational planning failed to take into consideration the non-formal aspects of education in their perspective.

Third, educational planning should be integrated with the plans for broader economic and social development. Coombs contended that if education is to contribute most effectively to individual and national development and to make the best use of scarce resources, it could not afford to go its own way while ignoring the realities of the world around it.

Fourth, educational planning should be an integral part of educational management. Coombs added that, for planning to be effective, it must be closely tied to the process of decision-making and operations. This view found similar emphasis from Miklos (1972), who defined educational planning as an aspect of management. Both authors warned against the danger of isolating educational planning from educational management, because such a practice would relegate planning to the status of a mere academic exercise. Planning, to be meaningful, they asserted, must be equally concerned with the implementation of the plans or programs made.

Fifth, educational planning must be concerned with the qualitative aspects of educational development, not merely with quantitative expansion. Coombs emphasized that only in this way can planning help to make education more relevant, efficient, and effective. Ingram, Riffel, and Dyck (1970) also emphasized the same point, but went further to indicate the difficulty of building the debate about qualitative priorities into the planning process, especially in pluralistic social systems. They argued, "In a pluralistic social system, qualitative priorities are set politically; the difficulty is to build this debate into the planning process so that issues can be handled explicitly" (1970:11).

In addition to the five ingredients summarized by Coombs, two other important ingredients were emphasized by "Second Generation of Educational Planning" (OECD, 1970):

First, that educational planning should be participative. The emphasis here is the need to involve people who are to be affected by planning at its initial formulation. The basic assumption made is that environment is very important to organizations. Hall (1972:297), in emphasizing this point, declared that, "conditions external to the organization contribute to what goes on within the organization, the form that the organization takes, and the consequences of its actions." Participation by various interest groups in the formulation of plans concerning their educational development helps to ensure that the plans will take seriously the educational needs of the various groups; it also enhances the likelihood of the various plans being accepted by the groups.

Second, educational planning should have an active orientation to the future. This view emphasizes that the future is neither an extension of the present nor the product of fate, but can, in fact, be actively influenced by man's decisions and actions. Unless an educational system learns to anticipate--through creative speculation--about the future, it may be plunged into an unwanted educational future from which it would be too late to escape. Weingarten's (1974:184) emphasis on this point is particularly relevant:

> Inventions of possible futures are no more, and no less, potentially useful or useless than inventions of possible pasts. There is, however, one difference. We can affect what happens in the future. We cannot affect what happened in the past, even if we could determine what actually happened.

Generally, the seven characteristics of "Second Generation of Education Planning" gained recognition and acceptance, from many scholars, as ingredients for sound planning. For example, Coombs (1970: 34) claimed that his five ingredients soon enjoyed "universal endorsement."

Riffel's (1971) "Optimal Model of the Educational Planning Process" also contained ingredients similar to those of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning." Riffel's (1971) optimal model comprised the following ingredients: short-, medium-, and long-range time perspective (p. 14); comprehensiveness (p. 13); integrated with other forms of social policy (pp. 12-13). Riffel also emphasized the need for a planning system to have organizational equipment for handling the evaluation and redesign of planned programs and to adapt its procedures to environmental changes.

Miklos's and Bourgette's (1972) formulation also contained a list of similar characteristics. According to them, educational planning should: (1) contain short-, medium, and long-term elements (pp. 145, 146); (2) be comprehensive (pp. 148, 149, 155); (3) be integrated with plans of broader social and economic development (p. 157); (4) be related to the process of decision-making and operations (pp. 144, 145); (5) tackle quality issues (pp. 149, 165); (6) be participative (p. 163); and (7) take an active stance to the future.

Many other writers, in the same area, isolated certain ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning," for emphasis. For example, Ziegler (1970) emphasized that educational planners should take an active stance toward the future. Green (1971:6-10) and Anderson (1967) stressed the relationship between educational planning and other forms of social policy. Myrdal (1968) pointed to the need for educational planning to tackle quality issues (pp. 1810, 1814); the need to relate educational planning to planning in other fields (p. 1812); and the need to make educational planning comprehensive (p. 1814).

Riffel, Ingram, and Dyck (1970), in their mission proposal, emphasized all seven ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning." Throughout their book, they stressed that all major deliberations on educational policy and planning involve social questions, thus pointing out the reciprocal effects of education, social change, and progress.

Summary of Historical Developments of Educational Planning

The above brief survey points to the differences in emphasis accorded educational planning during different periods of time. Generally, before World War II, planning tended mainly to emphasize the needs of educational systems. The needs of students and those of society were often ignored. Consequently, educational planning tended to focus on short-range time perspectives, and was generally fragmentary, non-integrated, and non-dynamic in nature.

After World War II, new problems manifested themselves and were mainly due to rapid changes that had taken place in scientific and technical, economic and demographic, and political and cultural dimensions. These changes necessitated, and yielded, different kinds of educational planning and forecasting procedures throughout the world. Developing countries were particularly hard hit since they lacked the resources with which to combat these problems. Generally, many of them perceived solutions as lying in linear expansion. In turn, this linear expansion produced yet more nagging problems. Despite these problems, a gradual awareness of the need for careful educational planning increasingly became apparent. With this awareness came the realization that educational planning should broaden its range of concerns. Consequently, developments after 1970 moved in the direction of overcoming the problems experienced in earlier attempts at educational planning. The new methodologies that emerged came to be known as the "Second Generation of Educational Planning," and were characterized by seven ingredients, described in full on pages 36 to 39, which generally received universal recognition and acceptance.

Perhaps the general theme of the analysis here is that prescriptive theory and practice in educational planning do vary according to the major features of the educational policy which elicits planning activities. Although the ingredients of the "Second Generation of

Educational Planning" model provide a basis for analysing the planning practices and activities of a planning branch, one must be careful to examine and identify the dominant characteristics that typify the posture which the political system adopts toward education. They represent an indication of the general function which education is expected to fulfil, and reflect significant cultural, social, and economic conditions. As detailed in Chapter 1 (p. 4), Miklos (1972: 12-13) identified five major features or characteristics which appear to have had a tremendous impact on the educational policies of a good many countries since the end of World War II.

Some social-political systems may have educational policies which include the full range of these characteristics; however, it is also possible to find different emphases in different settings, as well as variations over time in the same political system.

A brief examination of each of the five characteristics is provided below. Further, in the analysis of the planning practices of the Planning Branch of the Alberta Department of Education, discussed in Chapter 5, a special attempt is made to identify the above features in the Branch activities.

APPROACHES TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Planning for Educational Expansion

Planning for educational expansion entails increasing educational opportunities in all directions. Such expansion creates demands for personnel, facilities, equipment, and resources in general. This type of planning is more prevalent in the developing countries, which still suffer from inadequate educational opportunities. However, the same kind of planning can and does exist even in developed countries, especially in connection with adult education.

Planning for Economic Development

Planning for economic development views education as a vital and crucial force in stimulating economic growth in all sectors of the economy. The main objective is to yield an operational plan which guides educational expansion in a way that will contribute to, and be supportive of, economic expansion. This type of planning regards education as an investment in human capital. Emphasis is placed on drawing up projections for manpower requirements, cost/benefit analysis, supply and demand models, and rates of return to education.

Educational Planning and Social Policy

Social demand in educational planning attempts to link educational policies more closely to specific social policies. Social demand forecasts may be defined as an attempt to ascertain future needs for educational facilities, bearing in mind the likely influence--whether demographic, policy, or general economic trends--on both voluntary and compulsory enrolment in educational institutions. Voluntary enrolments represent individual demands for education. Whether motivated by parent or student does not really matter, nor does the question of whether education is an investment good or is vocationally oriented. What does matter is that there is a demand for places as such in the educational system, and those who are suitably qualified should be provided with places. This type of demand forecasting tends to be open-ended; that is, it takes into account only the demands of individuals and society for the provision of educational facilities; it does not relate these demands to anything else, such as manpower needs, despite the fact that so much education at the second--and especially at the third--level is vocational in orientation. It assumes implicitly that students will look carefully at the labour market before making educational decisions, that these decisions will be such as to lead eventually to an "output" of suitably qualified manpower for the labour market, and that, therefore, surpluses and shortages of skills will be eliminated, as long as authorities provide the places demanded.

Any forecast of social demand for education divides into two parts, namely: (1) a forecast of compulsory (that is, below minimum school-leaving age) enrolments; and (2) a forecast of voluntary enrolments. In practice, however, a threefold division is usual, and voluntary enrolments for the second and third levels are forecast separately.

Planning for Increased Efficiency in Operation

Rising costs in education, and the competition which education faces from other social services, have by and large been responsible for this type of planning. Central to the problem is the scarcity of resources which any country can spend on education. Taxpayers want to be assured that they will get their money's worth from the service that is provided. These pressures have given rise to a closer look at current planning practices. The general task which confronts those engaged in educational planning is to develop means for establishing priorities among goals, and for managing programs designed to achieve selected goals in the most efficient manner possible. Included in such a task would be evaluation of alternative courses of action, identification of costly variables, and development of economies with respect to such variables.

Planning for Qualitative Improvements

The main objective of this kind of planning centres around the need to bring about change within the educational system by developing programs which are more closely related to the needs of the students and society, thus preparing for changes at all levels of the school system. The aim of this type of planning is to reshape existing processes and all available structures necessary to accommodate such changes.

The specific objectives of this kind of planning are to inject qualitative concerns into quantitative planning, to modify educational experiences (and not just the structures in which they take place) and, finally, to develop alternative futures for education and alternative strategies for moving systems toward the desired states.

To accomplish the above objectives would require that traditional methods of planning be reviewed and improved, and new ones added. New techniques might include: providing effective means for developing quantitative and qualitative forecasts; monitoring current policies and practices; analysing decision-making processes; and relying more upon research than in the past.

OTHER EMERGING MODELS OF PLANNING

The approaches described in the foregoing section are based on what some writers regard as modern planning. These writers claim that at the core of modern planning (that is, the existing concept of planning) is the "rational-comprehensive" model, which is premised on such criteria as: (1) establishment of an objectively defined set of goals; (2) statement of all possible alternate courses of action to attain these goals; (3) evaluation of those courses of action in terms of their efficiency; (4) selection of that alternative which most nearly optimizes the set of goals; and (5) assessment of that action, once implemented, in terms of its actual effects upon the overall structure.

Bolan (1967) claimed that this rational-comprehensive model is, in effect, an unattainable "ideal," yet apparently all current theory attempts to modify it so as to cope with perceived limits of human rationality have been unsuccessful. In joining issue with Bolan, Grabow and Heskin (1973) criticized modern planning on the grounds that:

1. It is élitist in orientation in that it sets the "planner" --the comprehensive adviser--apart from the world he or she is to "plan." Such a division tends to promote a relationship whereby two human beings relate in detachment as observer and observed, thereby establishing a hierarchy which reduces the one observed to a lower status.

2. It is centralizing and is based on attempts to know in advance results in pre-ordained behaviourism or self-fulfilling

prophecies. Thus, modern planning tends to be manipulative, requiring the monitoring and control of all observed activity. The success of this kind of planning necessitates centralized authority.

3. It is change-resistant. The final result of the attempt to know in advance, to control outcomes, is the eventual elimination of all but pre-programmed social change.

Grabow and Heskin (1973) also argued that significant change is always unique, unpredictable, and unrepeatable; that change is an open-ended creative process; and, further, that in the rational-comprehensive model, it is the creative sources of social change that are not and cannot be taken into account.

Evolutionary Experimentation Model

These criticisms, naturally, give rise to the question as to whether or not planning is possible. Critics of modern planning suggest that such a question is really a moot one, arguing that the problem of planning is, for all practical purposes, one of procedure and method. In their view, the appropriate question should be one of how existing planning practices could be improved. In an attempt to come to grips with the problem, two principal methods have been suggested by Grabow and Heskin (1973:50):

> [they are] . . . the dichotomy between planned action and spontaneity. These two methods grow out of different perceptions of duality: dominance and balance. A third view, dialectic, constitutes the foundation for a more radical perception of duality than either of these two . . . .

Their third view, the dialectic, sees the entities, not as related opposites, but as components of the same thing. The emerging paradigm has, as its main aim, a synthesis of the dichotomies stated above. While modern planning, based on the rational-comprehensive model, takes as its major theme the desire of man to control his own destiny, the emerging paradigm is not man-centred. Rather, the new paradigm aims at merging an individual's organic desires with the unity of the world. Under it, one is no longer striving to be a master, but to be an equal participant in the totality of the world. In this process of integration, two components of concern become crucial--consciousness and action. Consciousness and action are not seen as independent poles; each is related to, and dependent upon, the other. Consciousness constitutes an awareness, a sensibility, or a mental activity, a cognizance of existential problems; action interprets that consciousness. The action component of the emerging paradigm is what Grabow and Heskin (1973), de Chardin (1965), and Kuhn (1962) have called "evolutionary experimentation," a term borrowed from Edgar Dunn (1971).

The term "evolutionary" is borrowed from so-called biological evolution, which is a process wherein revolutions are called "mutations." The history of evolutionary processes is the history of the successes and/or failures of the mutations. In the same sense, social evolution is the history of successful and unsuccessful attempts at social mutations. Humans have the ability to change or to mutate reality, not only in the sense of extending a trend but also in the sense of causing a radical shift, one which, although it learns from the past, is wholly new. The process of evolutionary experimentation, then, is "the engagement in social experimentation, the attempt of mutation as a means of facilitating social evolution" (Grabow and Heskin, 1973:50).

This evolutionary experimentation is based on three components, namely: (1) the ethic (the ecological); (2) social experimentation; and (3) learning.

1. The ethic is the constant in the process, although even this appears to be changing as it develops and as knowledge of its implications increases.

2. To experiment is to act, without the necessity of certainty or probability of result. It involves risk-taking, with the purpose of learning. In the social world, experimentation entails a realization that situations rarely, if ever, recur.

3. Learning includes the concepts of understanding, evaluation, and reformulation. Understanding means recognizing the past and the nature of change. Evaluation means at least two things: First, recognizing the present, the past, and the nature of change; second, deciding whether experimentation has been worthwhile or whether it has deviated away from the ethic. Reformulation, then, is the integrating of the individual's or group's knowledge with that of society's, resulting in greater complexity.

In the emerging paradigm, planning is defined as "a synthesis of rational action and spontaneity: evolutionary social experimentation within the context of an ecological ethic" (Grabow and Heskin, 1973:56). Marcuse (1969:37-38) referred to this kind of planning as:

> The union of the new sensibility with a new rationality: the imagination becomes productive if it becomes the mediator between sensibility on the one hand, and theoretical as well as practical reason on the other, and in this harmony of faculties . . . guides the reconstruction of society.

In this kind of planning, a planner is viewed as an active, radical agent of change. He is not a creature of divided loyalty, one who owes as much or more to the profession as to the people. Instead, his job is that of facilitating social experimentation by the people. According to Grabow and Heskin (1973:57), he is:

> . . . a non-professional professional: no longer one with a property entitled "planning," but rather an educator and at the same time a student of the ecological ethic as revealed in the consciousness of the people.

Dialectical Paradigm

Another emerging paradigm that has provided Third World writers with a perspective for examining their social world and the articulation of their human aspirations, is the dialectical model or paradigm. This model makes use of such concepts as: consciousness (awareness), conscientization (the development of critical consciousness), and praxis (the essential unity of reflection and action). The dialectical paradigm, unlike the Western models, is new and is still in the process of being formed--it is utopian.

The dialectical model owes its elaboration, in a large measure, to Eastern and Western scholars, especially the Group Praxis of Yugoslavia and the Frankfurt School (known in North America through the works of such people as Herbert Marcuse, Eric Fromm, Jurgen Habermas, and Trent Schroyer). All these writers, in varying degrees, have claimed that the dynamics of the social world cannot be understood within the natural science paradigm, while the dialectical mode is more congenial to the study of the paradoxical nature of the social world (Gurvitch, 1962).

Central to this paradigm is the term "dialectic," which suggests a style of thinking as well as a mode of analysis. Perhaps its most radical claim is that it purports to be better suited for the investigation of the reality of the social world. The dialectic model has the following characteristics:

1. That social reality has to be understood as a totality, not as an association of parts to be analysed in isolation; that only such an approach can reveal the possibilities of radical change rather than superficial modification of systems. Applied to planning, this entails considering the whole society, not just parts of it. The principle of "divide and conquer" is totally rejected.

2. That the stable appearance of a social phenomenon is but a moment in its history; such a phenomenon can only be understood in the light of its origins and its future possibilities. Planning must, therefore, take into consideration history and culture. In this connection, foreign models, ideas, or practices must be carefully scrutinized before they are adopted. Frantz Fanon (1963:253) emphasized this point when he said:

> It is true that we need a model, and that we want blueprints and examples. For many of us the European Model is the most inspiring . . . . European achievements, European techniques and European style ought no longer to tempt us [Africans] and to throw us off our balance. Let us not try to imitate Europe . . . .

3. That the change process can best be understood in terms of opposite forces and contradictions. Further, that even thought-process evolves through conceptualization of opposite elements and perception of contradictions. For example, to understand the concept of liberation fully, one must consider its opposite--oppression; and the same is true of subject versus object, and so on.

The dialectic model rejects the positivistic tradition that man is simply a more complex animal whose mind is a passive receptacle, and, therefore, not essentially different from that of a lower animal. Instead, the dialectic paradigm views man as a being of praxis and, as such, capable of free and creative activities through which he transforms the world and fulfils his own human potentialities and those of others. Man's praxis is made possible through consciousness, by which he gives interpretation and meaning to the world. Man's mind is not a passive receptacle, but is active, intentional, and structured. Petrovic (1963:53; 1965;250) described what distinguishes man from every other living being:

> Man as praxis does not cease to be biological any more than the animal as biological being is exempted from physical and chemical laws. But although man has his particular biological nature, this nature is not [one] by which he essentially differs from everything else that exists. (1963:53)

Alvez (1969:165) made the same point when he declared: ". . . the qualitative difference that distinguishes what man does from what animals do, is that man transcends biological determinism and creates out of freedom and imagination."

The dialectical paradigm, unlike modern planning, does not claim to have developed an alternative method for the art and science of planning. Nevertheless, it does provide a critique of modern planning that may heighten our understanding of it. Like proponents of the evolutionary experimentation paradigm, liberation writers are critical of modern planning. They argue that modern planning seems to serve the interests of economic and military power rather than serving as a tool for the liberation of man. According to them, modern planning tends to organize the future so as to guarantee continuation of the present economic and power structure. In this way, the future is perceived as the extrapolation of the present, except for the dysfunctional elements which must be eliminated by the plan. Thus, modern planning becomes, in effect, a disjointed, incremental exercise. The future that modern planners bring about is a pre-ordained one, the vision of those in power whose interests have to be protected or even enhanced by the implementation of the plan. Such a future does not--indeed, could not possibly--leave much choice for those uninvolved citizens in the planning process and external to the power structure. They inevitably have to confront a future that has not taken into consideration their hopes, aspirations, and creativity. Therefore, the best they can expect to do (or the best that can be expected of them to do) is to engage in efforts to adapt to a future that has been planned for them. Consequently, the range of future options is reduced. Even if the various options are examined, this is only to ensure that those options which do not bring about radical changes in the power structure will be adopted or carried out. Consequently (or so it seems), so-called modern planning favours a repetition of the present, as it is less threatening than an uncertain future.

Although the dialectic paradigm advocated by liberation writers is mainly a critique of modern planning, it does provide two conditions for the kind of planning which they claim could serve as a means for liberating man. The first condition is that planning cannot be, or ought not to be, a downward process only, whereby planners make decisions at the top and these decisions are then transmitted downward to be executed at the lower level. They assert that the task of leaders is not to force a direction or a kind of development on people, but rather to explain, to listen, to provide information, to persuade, and to help the people to organize themselves. The kind of dialogue that is created serves the interests of both parties; on the one hand, the sophisticated knowledge of the leader or planner is challenged and even improved by the empirical knowledge of the people, and the knowledge of the latter also becomes more enlightened. Thus, contradictions between the two views are not only surfaced, but, more importantly, they are resolved dialectically for the good and enrichment of both. Freire (1968:126) brought this out clearly when he said, ". . . leaders cannot think without the people, nor for the people, but only with the people."

If planning is to help a people improve themselves through some kind of a revolution, educational or otherwise, the leadership and the people have to act together. Freire (1968:126) aptly emphasized such a need when he posited, "The revolution is made neither by the leaders for the people, nor by the people for the leaders, but both acting together in unshakable solidarity."

The second condition is that the planning process must be the result of a conscientizing dialogue between the planners and those affected by the plan, so that the views of the latter are taken into account in the drawing up and implementation of the plan. As indicated elsewhere in this thesis, the concept of conscientization has to do with the raising of people's critical awareness to their existential problems. Since all mankind is endowed with the qualities of consciousness and of praxis, it would be committing violence to them if they were not involved in decisions that affect them and their future. According to Freire (1968:126), man grows as a man in relation to his opportunity to decide and to act upon his decision. To deprive him of this basic right is to do him violence, or to reduce him to the alienating condition of being manipulated as an object. Under such conditions, man tends to regress into what Freire called "the culture of silence." Fanon (1963) alluded to the same notion when he observed that some people had the language, and others had the use of it. A planner's expertise alone, therefore, is not sufficient to be the basis of true authority. On the contrary, the locus of his authority lies in the willingness of the people to follow him in a joint search, not only for knowledge, but also for a means to improve themselves.

Summary of Approaches to Educational Planning

Both "The Evolutionary Experimentation Model," as well as "The Dialectical Paradigm," constitute a critique of modern planning. Central to both models are such notions as the following:

1. Planning should involve the citizenry.
2. Planning must embrace experimentation without the necessity of certainty or probability of results.
3. Planning should not be a downward process only.
4. The planning process must be the result of a conscientizing dialogue between planners and the citizenry.

Rather than striving to be master and manipulator, efforts should be geared toward the equality of all participants, both planners and the laity. In analysing the practices of the Planning Branch, information gained from both models proved to be most valuable.

ROLE OF A PLANNING UNIT

For a long time now, the planning function in many organizations, including educational organizations, has been the responsibility of top executives, departmental heads and, in a few cases, of ad hoc committees. In the recent past, however, developments have surfaced which clearly favour single planning units or branches to undertake planning activities. In supporting such units, Miklos and Bourgette (1972:169) said:

> The creation of such planning units within provincial departments of education has decided advantages if coupled with greater sensitivity to the need for planning at all levels . . . .

Advocates of these facilities argue that, in the interests of achieving both high levels of expertise at the technical level, as well as coordination of planning activities and effective use of information, a single planning unit would seem to be preferable to a more dispersed capability. The chief functions of such a unit would be to monitor the effects of existing policies, to prepare forecasts of future demands and developments, to outline the possible effect of anticipated policy changes, to prepare quantitative models for analysing costs and, in general, to provide a comprehensive information base for policy review and policy implementation. Several problems may militate against the accomplishment of these functions, however.

First, there is the problem of relating planning activities to actual decision-making or policy formation. In the structural resolution of this problem, difficulties may arise in at least two directions, namely: (1) the planning unit may be so placed that it appears as a threat to existing administrative structures, thus encountering resistance resulting in conflicts; or (2) the unit may be placed so far down in the hierarchy that it is too weak, and perhaps too technically oriented, to have any influence on decisions. A possible way out of this problem might lie in the division of responsibilities so that the top executives are themselves involved in planning and providing technical support through the creation of a specialized planning unit.

Eide (1970:23-24) suggested that planning agencies should play service-advisory roles and not executive roles. He provided the following guidelines for a planning agency:

1. A planning unit must be part of the organization it shall serve.
2. Its task is to provide service, not exert prescriptive authority over other units.
3. Its relationship to other units must be horizontal, and communication should normally not pass superior points of coordination.
4. The products of its work should normally serve as inputs into products finalized by other units.
5. The planning unit should not be used by the top leadership as a control mechanism over other units.
6. The unit should not be used to defend particular policies or practices.

The second problem to be met and overcome by a single planning unit has to do with continuous feedback and self-critical evaluation. This problem clearly necessitates: (1) the creation of procedures and structures which provide critical levels of feedback with minimum time lags; and (2) that the system be receptive to feedback, as well as be willing to adjust according to the information provided. Immegart and Pilecki (1973:57) emphasized both points thusly:

> The importance of the need for and development of formal feedback channels is seen in the fact that, for open systems, feedback is imperative to system survival, because only in this way can a system maximally ensure that the evaluative information that is taken in by the system is the type that can be utilized . . . .

The third problem that the unit could encounter relates to the function of preparing forecasts of future demands and developments. In connection with development, it is vital that a link exist between planning and research which is sensitive to the needs of the environment. Benveniste (1972:126) appeared to support this need when he stated:

> Planners consolidate their . . . position by (1) acquiring widespread external professional consensus on policy issues and (2) creating large integrated research teams whose advice cannot be easily dismissed.

Thus, researchers should feel that their products influence policy, while policy-makers are also sensitive to the contribution which research offers in setting new horizons and directions for policy. This point found emphasis from OECD (1970a:27-28) when it was considering the need to incorporate "futures" research into the planning process:

> . . . policy oriented educational futures, which means that we have to elaborate the feasibility of the futures by describing the

> strategies to go from the present to the future. An educational future has to be related to the present by describing the concrete policy decisions which are required to reach that future.

Although the importance and the usefulness of a planning unit cannot be doubted, it may be prudent to recognize the problems it could face in its relationships (structural or otherwise) within the organization. Since the thrust of the present study was to examine the planning practices of a planning branch, an attempt was made to survey its problems and the extent to which Eide's suggestions assisted the Branch in coping with these problems.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2

In this chapter, the literature pertaining to educational planning was surveyed. First, educational planning was defined as an aspect of the total decision-making process, which entails identification and refinement of goals directed toward the future and change. It was shown that such a process involved development, trial, assessment, and revision of alternative means to achieve alternative goals. Thus, the outcome of the process was a set of alternative goals and means.

In the second place, a rationale for educational planning was provided. It was indicated that educational planning emanated from a need to meet problems of inadequacy in the administration of education, the desire to avoid mistakes, the need to put scarce resources to effective use, and the need to make education more responsive to the needs of its clientele.

The process of educational planning was then examined. Generally, it was shown that the educational planning process entails a study of: (1) educational goals and priorities; (2) alternative ways and means; (3) possible future conditions; and (4) unforeseen events and how to deal with them. The planning process was seen, moreover, to involve critical examination of alternative courses of action, stimulation of ideas, identification of problems, and generation of data to be used in evaluating programs.

Various planning tools were then scrutinized, followed by a brief survey of historical aspects of educational planning. This survey revealed that different methodologies had been in use at different periods of time. For example, before World War II, educational planning tended to focus mainly on the needs of educational systems, rather than on the needs of students or society. At the end of World War II, a host of problems never before dreamed of manifested themselves. In order to cope with these problems, educational systems devised new procedures--varying from country to country--for handling them. Generally, five discernible approaches appeared to influence and preoccupy educational planners, as detailed on pages 36 to 38.

Other emerging models of educational planning were then reviewed. Two models or paradigms were identified: (1) the Evolutionary Experimentation Paradigm and (2) the Dialectic Paradigm. Both models constituted a critique to modern planning prefaced under the rational-comprehensive model.

The chapter ended with a review of the literature concerning the role of a planning unit. It was emphasized that the role of such a unit was to monitor effects of existing policies, to prepare forecasts of future demands and developments, to outline anticipated policy changes, to prepare models for analysing costs, and, in general, to provide a comprehensive information base for policy review and implementation.

The literature reviewed in this chapter proved invaluable in that it provided a sound basis for analysing the practices of the Branch. In the next chapter the conceptual framework upon which the study was based is presented.

Chapter 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

INTRODUCTION

The conceptual framework of the study was guided by the concepts of the system theory. Choice of the system theory was made on the basis of its characteristics, which appeared to provide a sound framework for studying and analysing the practices of the Planning Branch. For example, the system theory: (1) is comprehensive in scope, as it covers both macro and micro aspects of an organization; (2) views an event or act as being motivated by several desires; (3) is descriptive, its focus being a desire to seek understanding of organizational phenomena; (4) assumes events as being caused by numerous factors which may themselves be interrelated and interdependent; and (5) perceives an organization as an adaptive process. Under this last characteristic, if an organization wishes to remain viable --that is, to continue existing in its environment--it must continually adapt to the changing requirements of the environment. Thus, the organization and its environment are seen as interdependent. This implies that a viable organization and its environment are in a kind of dynamic equilibrium, rearranging their parts as necessary in the face of change. An overview of the system theory is provided in the next section.

OVERVIEW OF SYSTEM THEORY

/

Hall and Fagen (1956:18) defined the notion of a system as "a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes." A system, in short, is an entity that is composed of (1) a number of parts; (2) the relationships of these parts; and (3) the attributes of both the parts and the relationships. Similarly, Grinker (1956:370) conceived of a system as "some form in structure or operation, concepts or function, composed of united and integrated parts." Kaufman (1972:1) observed a system as "the sum total of parts working together to achieve required results or outcomes, based on needs." According to Kaufman, an entity can be a system, provided it has both purpose and organization. He emphasized goal attainment as one of its cardinal purposes. Etzioni (in Hinton and Reiz, 1971:475), applying the concept of a system to organization, made a similar observation when he said: "Organizations are coordinated human efforts to realize specific goals." This view was further supported by Katz (1971:412), when he posited: "The major input into social organizations consists of people." Parsons (1967) considered a social system as a network of interlocking systems and sub-systems whose functions are complementary. According to him, organizations are tied to society by the cultural system. Silverman (1970:57), in support of Parson's views about the cultural system, explained what such a system does and stands for:

> [a cultural system] . . . expresses the moral sentiments as well as the normative expectations of the society, defines the goals of an organization and is at the source of the exercise of the legitimate authority within it.

Accordingly, through a system perspective, one is able to examine the components and processes (including practices) of an organization. The resulting image from such examination is that of a dynamic, organismic entity made up of sub-systems which are in constant interaction with each other as well as with their external environment. In the next section, system analysis is examined.

SYSTEM ANALYSIS

According to Kaufman (1972:2), system analysis is "a process by which . . . methods and means are obtained and implemented, results are evaluated, and required revisions to all or part of the system are made . . . ." According to this definition, a system approach is a type of logical problem-solving process which can be applied to identifying and resolving educational problems, with emphasis placed on results or outcomes of the system. The increasing complexity of educational structures seems to call for a system approach. Environments within which educational systems exist are becoming increasingly unstable. Although a good variety of approaches has been utilized with varying degrees of success to study the activities of educational organizations, in the recent past educators have employed an analytical technique known as "system analysis." Many reasons have counted for such a shift. According to Sergiovanni and Carver (1974:215), the system approach has appealed to educators because:

> [it attempts] . . . to carefully define and map each of the independent parts of the whole so that one part can be manipulated with full awareness of the effects on each of the other parts internal to the system and the effects of this system on its environment.

By identifying and mapping the cycles of input, process or throughput, output, and renewed input, a useful notion of organizational operation can be obtained. A knowledge of these interrelationships provides some indication of the extent to which specific program goals have been attained, and the impact of new organizational policies.

Since system analysis implies the intent to analyse particular problems or activities in the context of some totality, to identify objectives of a unit or action, and to consider the interrelated activities that are required to achieve the objectives, the best way to carry out the analysis may be through the examination of the cycles of input, process (throughput), output, feedback, or renewed input. Each of these cycles is examined in the ensuing sections.

Inputs Dimension

It is almost impossible to examine the inputs cycle without considering the environment. The environment is the context within which a system or an organization exists, and comprises all the things surrounding the system, including everything that may affect, or be affected by, the system. The environment is the source of inputs which are translated by governments, the community, or the region within which an organization exists, and special interest groups which relate to that particular organization. These sources of influence impose an ongoing impact upon the roles and the goals of the organization, the nature and extent of non-human resources available to the organization, the clients of the organization, and the personnel who operate and work in it. Therefore, the importance of the environment to organizations cannot be overemphasized. Realizing this importance, Immegart and Pilecki (1973: 36) declared:

> . . . the environment evaluates and, in effect, controls the system and its action, and since it contains many other systems, often competing or even conflicting ones, it is imperative for open systems to extend their awareness of the environment--as well as forces and dynamics from the environment . . . .

Consequently, to be effective, systems or organizations need comprehensive yet accurate knowledge of or about all related aspects of their environments. They have to enlarge their so-called proximal environment and reduce their distal environment. This is vitally important, since the ultimate evaluation and control of organizational activity rests with the environment. Thus, while organizations work to maximize their own good and benefit, they are, in the long run, judged by their service to the larger environment. To whatever extent organizations contribute to and enhance their environment, the environment will reward and enhance the organizations.

We consider inputs next. At the outset, we might ask, "What are inputs?" According to Banathy (1973), inputs include such "things" as information, people, energies, events, situations, malfunctions, and materials that enter into the system from the environment. Almond and Powell (1966) divided inputs into two categories, namely, demands and supports. Demands affect the policies and goals of the system, while supports provide the resources which enable a political system to carry out its goals. Generally, demands focus on the allocation of goods and services; for example, demands for wage and hour laws, educational opportunity, recreational facilities; demands for participation in the political system; and demands for communication and information, such as demands for the affirmation of norms, the communication of policy intent from policy elites, and so on.

As Easton (1957:390) argued, inputs of demands are not enough to keep a political system going:

> Inputs of demands . . . are only the raw materials out of which finished products called decisions are manufactured. Energy in the form of actions or orientations promoting and resisting a political system, the demands arising in it, and the decisions issuing from it must also be put into the system to keep it running.

He asserted that there must also be inputs of supports. For example, if people demand schools, roads, hospitals, and a host of other services, they have to be willing and prepared to support the political system by paying taxes. If they demand to have changes in the operation of a school system, they should also be willing to provide participatory supports, and so forth.

The principal inputs to a provincial educational planning branch necessarily come from many organizations and "publics" within the province, since education affects, and is affected by, the people. However, some of the organizations and interest groups (organized or unorganized) are likely to exert greater pressure and influence on the activities of the Planning Branch than are others. For example, the other branches of the Department of Education (including the rest of the governmental departments of the provincial government), the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Alberta School Trustees Association, the university community, large school districts, religious organizations, political parties, and a few others, all have a capability to exert pressure and influence on the Branch. Since each of these organizations may articulate different demands, the way the Branch handles these inputs could provide an indication as to the practices of the Branch. By understanding the nature of the inputs, the operations of the Branch (including the outputs that accrue from it), one is likely to gain an insight into the processes and practices that the Branch employs in handling its problems. The question is: how can one gain such an understanding?

Banathy (1973:38) provided a partial answer to the question. He regarded the inputs cycle as being particularly crucial to organizations, especially to open ones, since they cannot survive without inputs. Accordingly, in order to analyse the practices of an organization, the inputs cycle can and does provide an important clue. Banathy divided the inputs cycle into three distinct components, namely: (1) interaction between the system and its environment; (2) identification of system-relevant inputs; and (3) introduction of system-relevant inputs into the system, thereby bringing about the activation of the system.

According to Banathy (1973:38) the mode of interaction between the environment and the system is communication. As the system interacts with its environment, it receives, decodes, and registers input signals. The inputs thus registered are screened for their relevancy to the system, so that only those which are relevant get processed. Further, this interaction also implies that the system will inform the environment--by feedback--of what has been perceived and registered.

In analysing the interaction component of the input process in the case of the Planning Branch, one has to determine whether or not the Branch maintains a contact with the environment, which, in this case, means whether or not there exist formal structures, means, and procedures for promoting such a contact.

The purpose of the identification aspect is simply to interpret the incoming inputs from the point of view of the system, to select those signals and entities that are relevant to the purpose and operation of the system, and to qualify or quantify the value of the input. This is considered necessary because it is possible for some of the signals received to belong to some other branches or even departments of the provincial government. Here, the identification process is particularly vital. Since it is so vital, the actors, structures, or organs whose responsibility it is to carry out the function of identification, ought to be equipped with relevant knowledge and methodology, enabling them to determine what is or is not relevant.

Finally, the third and last input process aspect deals with the introduction of the input into the system, and the activation of the system when the required inputs have been made available. This component is largely concerned with division of labour and delegation of authority. Since both the identification of the relevant inputs and the activation of the system cannot just happen without the necessary structures and procedures, in analysing these components particular attention needs to be paid to the processes that are utilized to identify the relevant inputs as well as to activate the system. Figure 1 summarizes Banathy's (1973:43) three phases of input process.

Transformation (Throughput or Process) Dimension

From the system perspective, the "inputs" of the system undergo

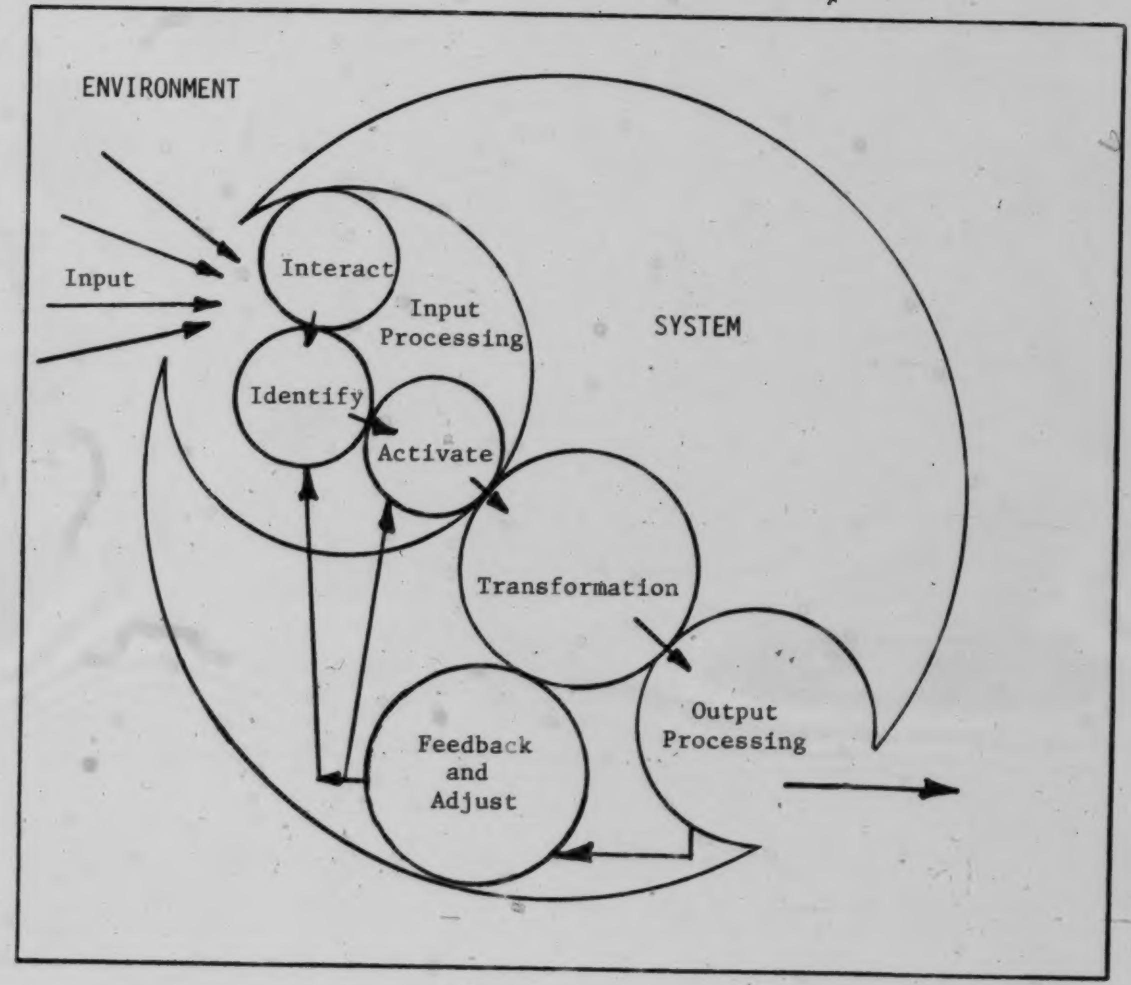

Figure 1

A Systems Model of Input Processing

[Source: Banathy, 1973, p. 43.]

changes through the "conversion process" and, as a result, are transformed into "outputs" of the system. The conversion process, or functions, then, are the ways by which systems transform inputs into outputs. In the political system, this involves the ways in which demands and supports are transformed into authoritative decisions and are subsequently implemented.

In general terms, transformation aims at the attainment of an output. Banathy (1973) has identified three major interacting and independent domains in the transformation process: (1) the transformation production domain; (2) the transformation facilitation domain; and (3) the transformation control and adjustment domain.

The transformation production domain is composed of operations that aim at the transformation of the system "subject" from the input state to the desired output state. The transformation facilitation is comprised of those operations which are related to the maintenance of adequate system behaviour appropriate to both the goal and the energizing of the system's components. Finally, the transformation control domain's concern is to ensure that the components of the system perform steadily in a way that guarantees the eventual attainment of the output objectives. Thus, at any point--and systematically at certain intermediate points--performance measures are taken and compared with relevant intermediate models. If there is a difference between what the performance of the system is and what it should be, adjustments are introduced to overcome deficiencies. In short, monitoring, measuring performance, analysing data, and adjusting in order to correct for the deficiencies, constitute the performance control-effectiveness dimension of transformation control.

The next concern of the transformation control dimension is to ensure that the desired performance will be achieved within the cost constraints, which is one of the input entities. A similarity does exist between Banathy's transformation domains and Parsons' three levels of organization discussed later on in this chapter. Both formulations are helpful in understanding the operations that go on inside systems or organizations. Figure 2 summarizes Banathy's (1973:49) three domains of the transformation function.

For a long time, many social and political scientists have interested themselves in studying the conversion processes of different political systems. As a result, numerous techniques have been devised for the purpose, among the most recent being those formulated by Almond and Powell (1966). According to Almond and Powell, in order to investigate the conversion processes of a political system, such factors as the following may be examined: (1) how demands or interests are articulated; (2) how demands are combined in the form of alternative courses of actions; (3) how authoritative rules are formulated; (4) how rules are applied and enforced; (5) how rules are adjudicated; and (6) how various activities are communicated (diffused), within both the political system and its environment.

Since the Planning Branch that was studied formed a sub-system of the political system in the province, some of the factors suggested by Almond and Powell were considered irrelevant as they belonged more to the supra-system. Further, as this sub-system engaged in a specialized kind of activity, it appeared prudent to employ a model that bore

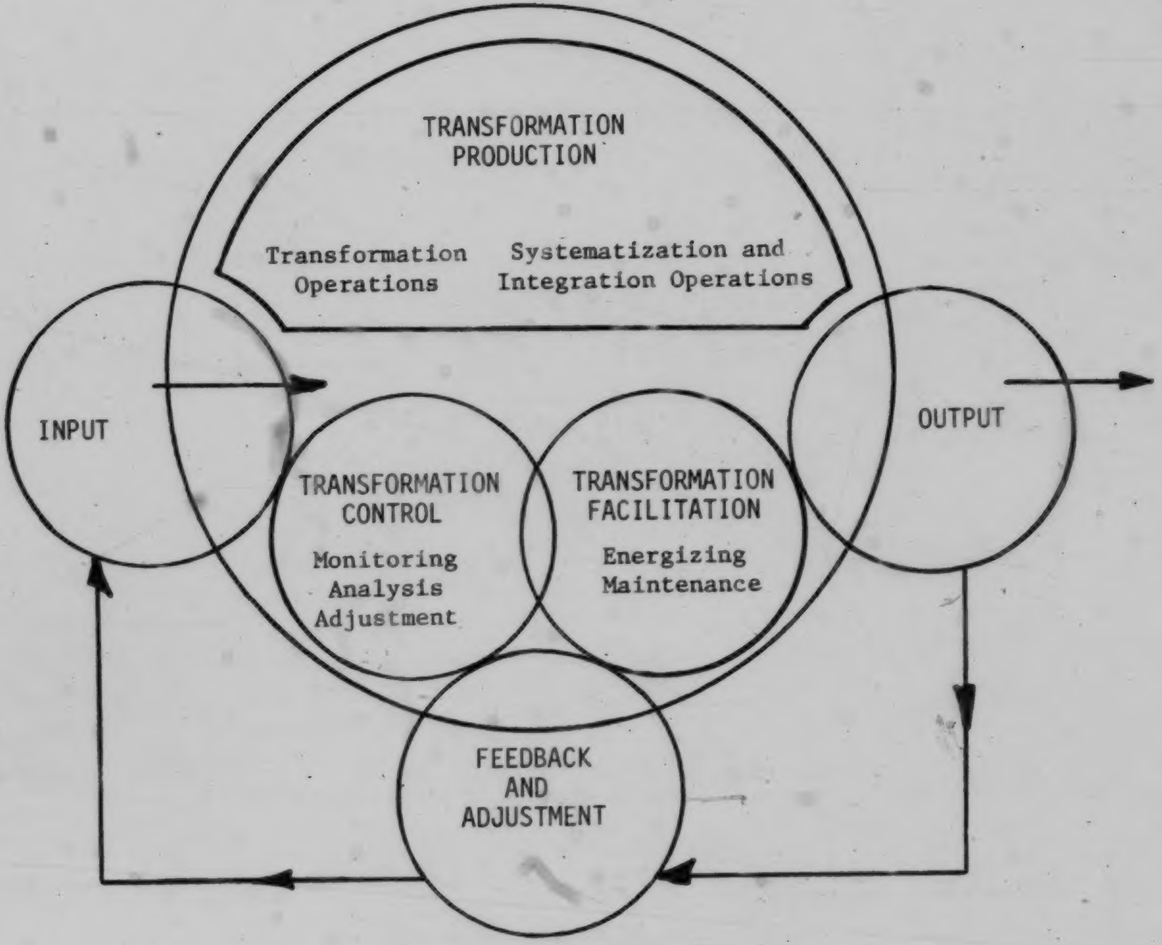

Figure 2

Transformation Model

[Source: Banathy, 1973, p. 49.]

some close relationship to the activity undertaken. Nevertheless, the Almond and Powell (1966) formulations were not totally rejected. On the contrary, they were carefully examined along with the seven ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning (as discussed in Chapter 2). This examination yielded five criteria which provided a basis for the analysis of the conversion practices of the Planning Branch. The five criteria are further explained in Chapter 4. In this chapter, however, a brief description of the criteria, including the variables in each of them, is furnished.

Criterion 1. Under this criterion, four aspects of the orientation of the Branch to its task were examined, namely: (1) the philosophy on which the planning activities were based; (2) the view of education as held by the Branch or expressed in the statement of its overall goals, and the extent to which this view characterized its practices; (3) the stance taken in its activities toward the future; and (4) if the planning was future-oriented, the kinds of techniques that were utilized. In this connection, Berghofer's (1972:18-22) formulation of various techniques for approaching the future proved most invaluable to the task. He contended that the future could be approached as the present; as the extrapolation of the present; as the single alternative future; as the technological future; and as the comprehensive future.

Criterion 2. Under this criterion, the significance of the environment to an organization is emphasized. Since organizations contribute to, and enhance, their environments, a planning branch could ill afford to ignore its environment. In this connection, the emphasis given to this criterion by Stufflebeam et al. (1971:218) was considered particularly relevant:

> . . . context evaluation defines the relevant environment, describes the desired and actual conditions pertaining to that environment, identifies unmet needs and unused opportunities, and diagnoses the problems that prevent needs from being met and opportunities from being used.

Since education affects and is affected by people, the activities of an educational planning branch could not afford to ignore the demands and educational expectations of its citizenry. In order to probe such awareness, the following variables were examined: (1) the degree to which the Branch took into account interest articulation, including educational expectations from its social, political, and economic environment; (2) the extent to which educational planning endeavours were connected with planning in other fields; and (3) the extent to which lay, as well as professional, people participated in the planning activities of the Branch. Specifically, attention was paid to the nature of planning that was undertaken and the groups that were involved.

Criterion 3. The thrust of this criterion was time--a scarce commodity in the world of policy and planning. Time constraints operate against experts. If there is little time to work on a problem, the expert is less likely to come up with a solution, particularly if the problem requires a new solution that is comprised of both technical and political elements. Moreover, if time constraints are severe, it may not even be possible for the expert to channel enough information to begin looking for an acceptable solution. Thus, time is a most valuable commodity--especially so in educational planning, since education affects all people. The "Second Generation of Educational Planning" took cognizance of this fact when they recommended that educational planning should be: (1) short-range (one to two years); (2) medium-range (four to five years); and (3) long-range (ten to fifteen years). In studying and analysing the practices of the Branch, particular attention was paid to the type of planning in terms of its duration.

Criterion 4. One of the major ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" was that educational planning should be all-encompassing--comprehensive. In recognition of this fact, the thrust of the analysis was directed at determining the extent, the range, or the scope of the activities that were undertaken by the Branch. Moses' (1971:1) analyses of the scope of activities of educational systems provided a guide to this endeavour. He divided this scope into two categories--core and periphery--of a school system right from kindergarten through graduate and professional schools. Moses (1971:1) spoke of core activities as being:

> . . . that sequential ladder of educational activities represented in the organized, most publicly subsidized educational system ranging from kindergarten through graduate and professional schools.

Since the Branch did not plan programs that extended as far as graduate and professional schools, a delimitation was imposed so that the core activities extended from kindergarten to Grade 12 only. As for periphery activities, Moses' categorization was, again, too comprehensive. Another delimitation was required in order to exclude those offered by private associations, including correspondence courses. Such activities, though of significant interest, were regarded as falling outside the purview of the Branch. According to Moses (1971:1), periphery activities consist of the kind of learning that takes place in:

> . . . governmental and private organizations . . . correspondence education, educational television . . . and the vast potpourri of educational activities in various public and private associations of the larger society.

Therefore, on the variables of core and periphery activities, the analysis was limited to include kindergarten through Grade 12. The other variables analysed were:

1. Levels of organizations for which planning is done. Parsons' (1960:60-65) three levels of organizations--institutional, managerial, and technical--were included.

2. Diffusion of the plans and other outputs within both the Branch and the Department of Education, on the one hand, and between the Branch and its environment, on the other, was included. An attempt was made to identify the procedures and processes through which information regarding the outputs of the Branch was transmitted.

Criterion 5. The thrust of this criterion was to examine the connections between the Branch and the functions of the organizations being planned. Specifically, this meant an examination of the nature and the relationships between planning and organizational processes, such as policy-making, decision-making, implementation, and evaluation. Further, it also entailed an examination of the authority of the experts--the planners. In this connection, an attempt was made to determine the sources of power to planners. It was realized that a call for planning means, in effect, a call for new political resources. As Benveniste (1972:31) pointed out:

> If planners create new political resources, they also acquire power of their own. The power of planners comes from many sources, one of which is the performance of functions no one else can perform.

Planners also have other sources of power, and Benveniste saw these as coming from (1) the access of experts or planners to existing power centres; (2) the political value of information; (3) the planners' monopolistic position; (4) the cost of external intervention; and (5) the possibility of coalition formation both inside and outside the government.

In determining the power of planners, the above criteria and the processes employed were analysed. Finally, an attempt was made to discover what impact the Branch had had in changing the attitudes and perceptions of all concerned as to the value of planning. As Coombs (1970:50) put it:

> . . . the key problem [is]--how to make planning part of the life style of everyone in the education system. Educational planning, regardless of how good its methodologies may be, can never really work unless the administrative milieu is favourable.

In the next section, the outputs, implementation, and feedback dimension are presented.

Outputs, Implementation, and Feedback Dimension

The following discussion incorporates outputs, implementation strategies, and feedback.

Outputs. Outputs may be conceived as the resultant of system activity, the state of the system at some terminal time, systems products, and as the full range of outcomes of system. Immegart and Pilecki (1972:104) have categorized organizational outputs as: ". . . productivity, organizational integration, organizational health, and evaluation or feedback." Since the present study does not deal with organizational integration and organizational health, only the first (productivity) and the last (evaluation or feedback) categories were studied. Parsons (156:64-67) provided two measures for productivity--"product utility," and "service utility."

Product utility represents the usefulness to the organizations and the external environment of results or goods that accrue from the organization. Service utility is the usefulness to the organization and the external environment of capacities or assistance potential, which serve as instruments for a further phase of activity by the organization or the external environment.

Thus, in studying the Branch practices, particular attention was paid to the nature of the outputs and/or outcomes that accrued from it, and a framework was provided by Immegart and Pilecki's (1972:104) categorization of outputs.

Implementation and orientation to task. As previously indicated, planning is a purposive activity, and is not done for its own sake but rather to produce certain outcomes which may vary in nature; for example, they might be plans or policies. Both policies and plans are statements of intent concerned with the characteristics of future events. If these intents and descriptions of future events are thought to have a high probability of being realized, the plan or policy is implemented, not only through directives and formal orders, but also through a simple process of individual reorientation. Because people believe the plan will be implemented, individual decision-makers take into account the image of the future contained in the plan to guide their own choices.

Consequently, in studying the Branch practices, it was necessary to determine not only the nature of the outcomes, but also the processes that were employed in implementing them. In this connection, the three Chin and Benne (1976:22-45) strategies for implementing change proved most useful to the analysis, and each is discussed below:

1. Empirical-Rational Strategies. These are strategies which assume that man is rational, and that he will follow his rational self-interest once it is revealed to him. The general strategy of this approach is to search systematically for knowledge and then to diffuse this knowledge through general education. A change will likely be adopted if it is proposed by some person, group, or planning branch who knows the situation that is desirable, effective, and in line with the self-interest of the person, group, organization, or community that will be affected by the change. In other words, because the recipient is assumed to be rational and moved by self-interest, he will adopt the proposed change if it can be rationally justified, and if it can be shown that he will gain by the change.

2. Normative-Reeducative Strategies. These strategies assume that man is inherently active, in quest of impulse, and needs

satisfaction. The relationship between man and his environment is essentially transactional. Thus, "the normative-reeducative approaches to effecting change bring direct intervention based on a consciously worked out theory of change and changing into the life of the client system" (Chin and Benne, 1969:44). This model of changing is essentially a cooperative, action-research model and it recognizes that, man must participate in his own re-education if he is to be re-educated at all. The emphasis must be placed, therefore, upon providing the user with problem-solving skills and bringing out the needed change in attitudes, values, and behaviour.

3. Power-Coercive Strategies. These strategies assumed that change results from application of power in some form--political, economic, intellectual, moral, or otherwise. "The influence processes involved are basically that of compliance of those with greater power" (Chin and Benne, 1969:34). Sub-strategies include control over job and role requirements, inducements and punishments, recomposition and manipulation of power élites, power redistribution, and the like. Perhaps the earliest proponent of this strategy for change was Marx.

Feedback. Feedback is the evaluative or monitoring process whereby open systems assess their outputs, including their conversion processes. Sources of feedback may be from within or without the system, but, regardless of the source, feedback is the literal feeding back into the system, into its structure and processes, of evaluative information about the system, its activities, and its efforts. According to Immegart and Pilecki (1972:56), feedback is:

> . . . communicated information which is basically judgemental in nature. With it a system is able to adjust future action and behavior by reviewing its past performances in terms of goals or objectives, or in terms of system functionality or contribution.

Consequently, by reviewing its output (activities, achievements, outcomes), especially as perceived both internally and externally, a system is in a position to decide whether or not its processing of future inputs needs adjustment or modification.

Since feedback is so vital to organizations, it seems essential that they not only devise efficient means for receiving, handling, and using evaluative information, but also that constant attention be given to the need for feedback and the kinds of evaluative information that are most helpful. Miller (1965:367) emphasized the need to create formal feedback channels:

> . . . importance of the need for and development of formal feedback channels is seen in the fact that, for open systems, feedback is imperative to system survival, because only in this way can a system maximally ensure that evaluative information . . . is the type that can be utilized appropriately by the system.

Accordingly, in studying the feedback practices of the Planning Branch, particular attention was given to determining the channels through which feedback information was received, and the processes that were used for adjusting its activities to ensure better performance. In carrying out these activities, Immegart and Pilecki's (1972) assessment criteria proved most useful. According to them, organizational feedback can be assessed in two ways: in terms of desirability and in terms of penetration. Desirability of feedback is the degree to which feedback and evaluation are encouraged and wanted by the organization, as reflected by those directly involved. Penetration of feedback or evaluation is the degree to which, or the distance which, feedback travels from the point at which it re-enters the organization until it reaches all persons responsible for, and holding commensurate authority for, implementation.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3

Presented in this chapter was the conceptual framework upon which the investigation was based. As indicated above, the study employed the concepts of the system theory.

In the first place, an overview of the system theory was provided, followed by the system analysis. It was suggested that, although a good variety of approaches had been employed to study educational organizations, recent practice had shown that the system analysis technique had gained greatly in popularity, or at least has been reasonably well proven over time.

Secondly, in order to study and analyse the planning practices of the Branch, an examination of the dimensions of input, process, output, and feedback was made.

Inputs were defined as information, energies, events, situations, malfunctions, and materials that enter into the system from the environment. The importance of the environment to an organization was thereby emphasized.

The transformation (throughput, process) dimension was considered next. From the system perspective, it was argued that the inputs of any system undergo changes through conversion processes and, as a result, are transformed into the outputs of the system. Thus, the conversion processes provide the ways by which systems transform inputs into outputs.

In order to analyse the conversion processes of the Branch, a synthesis of the Almond and Powell (1966) formulation with the ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" was made. This synthesis yielded five criteria that were employed for analysing the conversion practices of the Branch.

The last dimension considered was the output, implementation, and feedback dimension. Outputs were defined as the resultant of system activity, the state of the system at some terminal time, system products, including a full range of outcomes of system. Thus, in studying and analysing the Branch practices, attention was focussed on the nature of the outputs. Immegart and Pilecki's (1972) categorization of outputs were found to be invaluable to this analysis.

Implementation was considered a vital part of planning. Planning, being a purposive activity, had to be done to produce outcomes. If the outcomes thus produced are considered to have a high probability of being realized, such intents are implemented through directives and formal orders, including various processes of individual reorientation.

Consequently, in studying the implementation practices of the Branch, it was necessary to determine the processes and strategies that were employed in implementing the outputs. In this connection, the Chin and Benne strategies for implementing change were most helpful.

Finally, the feedback component to the dimension was considered. Feedback was defined as the evaluative or monitoring process in which open systems assess their outputs, including their conversion processes. Immegart and Pilecki's categorization of criteria for assessing organizational feedback, namely, the desirability and penetration of feedback, provided a useful framework for assessing the feedback cycle of the model. Figure 3 provides a model of General System operations showing the different components, namely, input processing, transformation, output processing, and finally the feedback and adjustment component.

An attempt was made in this chapter to build road blocks within which the study was conducted. This "engineering" work was accomplished through the use of the concepts of system theory.

In the ensuing chapter, an effort is made to spell out in detail the methodology for proceeding from one block to another.

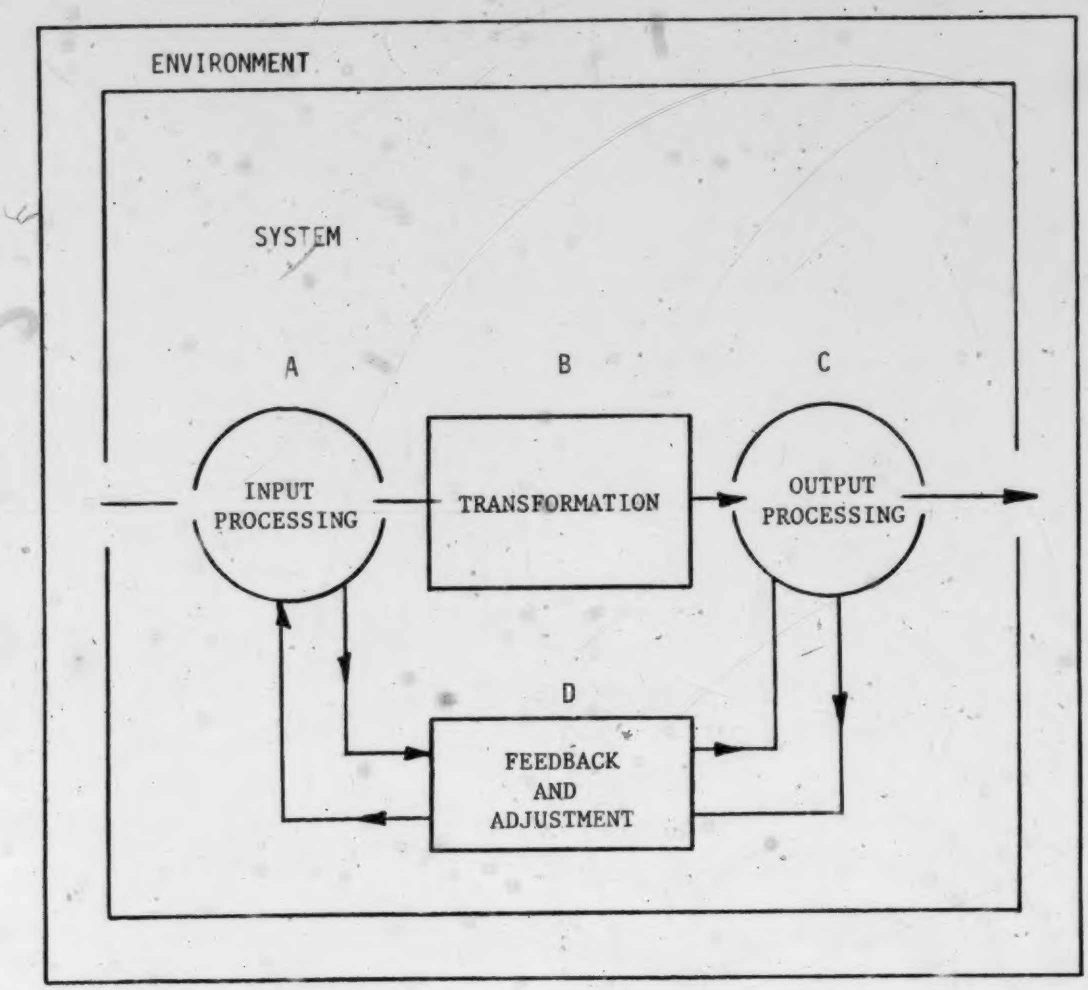

Figure 3

A Model of General Systems Operations that (A) Process the System Input, (B) Transform the Input as Desired, (C) Process the Output, and (D) Control and Adjust the System

[Source: Banathy, 1973, p. 37.]

Chapter 4

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter is presented the methodology that was employed to study the planning practices of the Branch.

Two characteristics of the system theory merit further mention, as they are considered to be particularly germane to the study. The first is that the system theory is descriptive and has as its prime focus an understanding of organizational phenomena; and second, that it is comprehensive in scope because it embraces both macro and micro aspects of an organization. The macro aspects are concerned mainly with the distal environment, or those aspects of which a system or organization is not fully or completely aware. Such aspects may include various organizations, groups (organized or unorganized), and individuals that continually articulate demands to the organization. The micro aspects apply to the proximal environment or to those aspects of which the system is aware--such as the internal organization--and the operation of the system or organization. Thus, it is absolutely crucial for organizations to have as much knowledge about all related aspects of their environments as possible. They need to enlarge their proximal environment and to reduce their distal environment. Further, systems or organizations need intensive knowledge about those aspects of the proximal environment which are most critical to their activity.

In accord with the above characteristics, the focus of the endeavour was to describe and to analyse the current planning practices of the Branch. There was no attempt to make value judgements regarding those practices, nor to determine the effectiveness of the Branch. Further, since the research focussed on a particular sub-system--that is, the Planning Branch of the Department of Education--"case study" techniques were utilized. As Turney and Robb (1971:64) declared, "the case-study method provides information about specific persons, existing institutions or concrete entities." In the same vein, Good and Scates (1954:726) visualized the essential procedure of a case-study method as being:

> . . . to take account of all pertinent aspects of one thing or situation, employing as the unit for study an individual, an institution, a community, or any group considered as a unit. The case consists of the data relating to some phase of the life history of the unit or relating to the entire life process, whether the unit is an individual, a family, a social group, an institution, or a community.

In order to take account of the crucial aspects of the Branch, the entire endeavour was divided into three phases. Phase 1 consisted of on-the-spot observation and a search through official documents. Phase II consisted of interviews with various people, including spokesmen for a number of organizations, who, in the opinion of the researcher, were conversant (or had been involved in one way or another) with the activities of the Branch. Finally, Phase III dealt with the review and analysis of the data collected during Phases I and II. A model or paradigm to facilitate the analysis was developed from a synthesis of the Almond and Powell (1966) formulation with the seven ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning." This model, including each of the three phases, is discussed in the ensuing sections.

DESIGN

Phase I: Observation and Document Search

The two activities which characterized the thrust of Phase I were (1) on-the-spot observation, and (2) a search of some official documents. On-the-spot observation was accomplished through visits to the Branch and observing its various activities in an attempt to gain an understanding of Branch functions and problems. To facilitate such understanding, clarification was sought from actors from time to time. Further, special attention was paid to certain items that were viewed as useful indicators of facts which might have been harder to observe. Since the Branch had two major sections--Planning and Research--it was essential to observe them separately, to gain an insight into the activities of each of them. In doing so, particular attention was paid to any possible links between the two sections, thus making the observation both specific and systematic.

Although direct observation was deemed useful and necessary, it was nevertheless considered insufficient to enable the researcher to obtain a thorough description of Branch activities. McCall and Simmons (1969:4) appeared to emphasize the same point when they suggested that:

> . . . (1) the organization is typically being manifested in several locales simultaneously, (2) the organization has typically been in existence for some time before the [researcher] undertook his study, (3) many of its features or determinants . . . are only imperfectly inferable by direct observations.

Accordingly, while direct observation played a significant role in the research, other techniques for gathering information were also employed: in Phase I, a search through official documents was also utilized.

Conway, Jennings, and Milstein (1974:54) defined documents as "reports of past events, observations, or activities, made for the purpose of transmitting information." Included in this definition are written summaries or reports, memos, films, recordings, tapes, and a host of other items. On the assumption that no problems are totally new, results of earlier efforts to solve similar problems, or elements of the same problem, can often be found in documents. Conway, Jennings, and Milstein (1974:54) also identified four purposes for document research:

1. Documents provide background information about the problem.
2. Documents are useful in delineating the present manifestations of the problem.
3. Documents provide information about previously applied methods for delineating or solving the problem.
4. Further sources for examination can be identified through documents, e.g. who reported the problem: teachers, supervisors, citizens [planners]? Are the studies of the problem currently under study?

Document search, therefore, serves many vital purposes. Since no individual is likely to know all that has gone before, even in a single organization, such a search is perhaps the only other way to gain access to a system's practices and information. Because the Branch had been in existence for almost five years, to attempt a search through all its documents, including publications, would have been a mammoth task. Consequently, only those documents that were made available to the researcher were searched. The information thereby obtained was categorized according to content, and, in some cases, according to origin as well. Overall, this technique enabled the researcher to gain an insight into, and appreciation of, the practices of the Branch. In the next phase, another information-gathering technique was employed and is discussed below.

Phase II: Interview

This phase utilized the interview technique for gathering information. Several reasons accounted for the decision to use this technique. In the first place, the nature of the study virtually dictated the method to be used. Secondly, the literature surveyed abundantly revealed that the interview strategy is by far one of the more frequently used methods for identifying the perceptions of people. Kerlinger (1965:467) emphatically supported this technique:

> The interview [technique] is probably man's oldest and most often used device for obtaining information, . . . when used with a well-conceived schedule, an interview can often obtain a great deal of information . . . and it can often be used when no other method is possible or adequate.

Thirdly, since both the researcher and the respondents would be present during the interview, it was felt that this method provided the researcher with a rare opportunity to gain insight into the practices of the Branch because areas that were not fully understood could be probed by further questioning. Although the intent was to use structured questions (see Appendix A, Interview Schedules), an open-ended type of interview was occasionally resorted to. While the open-ended interview allows respondents freedom to give a wide range of responses (including those that may be irrelevant to the discussion), nevertheless, this study, in the main, utilized the closed interview format. This was done because the closed or structured format is designed to collect the same information from each respondent, the answers of all respondents being comparable and classifiable--that is, they must deal with precisely the same subject matter--and differences or similarities between the responses must reflect actual differences or similarities between respondents, and not differences due to the questions they were asked, or to the meanings that they attributed to the questions. The need for such a procedure was emphasized by Richardson, Dobrenwend, and Klein (1965:40) when they insisted: ". . . to produce a response that validly differentiates one respondent from another, the stimulus must be identical." According to this assumption, if the question is to function as an identical stimulus to every respondent, it must be worded identically each time it is presented. Further, since at any point in an interview every interchange that has taken place earlier in the interview is part of the stimulus context, the sequence of the questions must be identical. In cognizance of this fact, the questions were identically worded and presented in a similar sequence.

To accomplish the task, interviews were conducted with a few representatives of six groups: (1) Planning Branch, (2) Department of Education, (3) Alberta Teachers' Association, (4) Alberta School Trustees Association, (5) university community, and (6) large school districts (of the public and the Catholic systems). The selection of prospective interviewees was based partly on the positions they held in their respective organizations and partly on any previous participation in, or experience with, any activities organized by the Branch. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain perceptions of those questioned about the practices and outputs, or outcomes, that accrued from the

Branch. Since they were familiar with the activities of the Branch, their perceptions provided a means for assessing Branch practices. The information thus obtained was categorized, classified, and analysed according to a paradigm.

Phase III: Review and Analysis of Data

The thrust of the third phase was to analyse the data obtained in the first two phases. As Kerlinger (1965:603) stated, analysis is "the ordering [and] the breaking down of data into its contituent parts in order to obtain answers to research questions." Accordingly, the following major tasks were undertaken:

1. Development of both the analytical system and the analytical procedures based on the paradigm (see Fig. 4) as developed in Chapter 3.
2. Review, comparison, classification, and analysis of all data collected in Phases I and II. To this end, three steps were taken:
    (a) The data were first reviewed separately, according to techniques employed in collecting them.
    (b) Based on results of this review, a comparison of the data was made, which revealed similarities and differences among them.
    (c) The data were then analysed according to the criteria of the paradigm (see Fig. 4) as developed earlier in Chapter 3.
3. The final task concerned interpretation of the data

CRITERIA	VARIABLES
CRITERION I: Orientation or sense of direction	1. View of education and philosophy.
	2. Stance to the future.
	3. Methods for approaching future.
CRITERION II: Context (that is, the interrelated conditions in which the Branch exists)	1. Social, political, and economic environment.
	2. Interest articulation and interest aggregation by various interest groups.
	3. Participation of citizens in the activities of the Branch.
	4. Connections between educational planning and planning in other fields.
	5. Formulation of plans and authoritative rules for their implementation.
CRITERION III: Type of planning in terms of its duration (time) and quality	1. Short-range.
	2. Medium-range.
	3. Long-range.
	4. What is the focus? Quality? Quantity?
	5. How is it operationalized?
CRITERION IV: Scope or range of the Branch activities	1. Core and periphery: K1-12.
	2. Regional areas.
	3. Organizational levels (institutional, managerial, and technical).
	4. Communication of activities within the Branch, and between the Branch and its environment.
CRITERION V: Connection of the planning function to organizational processes	1. Type of connection between planning and organization processes.
	2. Authority of planners.
	3. Impact of the Branch on the organization and administration of education.

Figure 4

Paradigm for Analysing Branch Planning Practices

[Source: Synthesis of Almond and Powell, 1966; and ingredients of Second Generation of Educational Planning.]

collected. The importance of accurate interpretation of research data was stressed by McGrath, Jelinek, and Wochner (1963:154): "Accuracy in interpretation is mandatory if the consumers of research are to have continued faith in, and respect for, research results."

In an attempt to provide accurate findings, the data were interpreted both in terms of the paradigm and the objectives of the study. In this chapter, the paradigm (see Fig. 4) is stated, and its application to the study of the practices of the Branch explained.

DATA TREATMENT

Paradigm for Analysing Branch Practices

In Chapter 3, a paradigm for studying and assessing Branch practices was realized through a synthesis of the Almond and Powell criteria for assessing and comparing political systems with the seven ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning." That synthesis yielded a five-criterion paradigm for studying and analysing Branch practices. Figure 5 outlines the three phases during which the data were collected and shows the nature of information sought, its source, and the method or technique employed to collect it.

Application of the Paradigm

The need to have a model to aid in analysing the practices of the Branch arose from a concern expressed by members of the supervisory team. This team emphasized that a model was required, first, for sharpening the focus of the study, and, second, for providing some kind of terminal point to it.

System Component	Nature of Information Required	Source of Information	Data Collection Technique
Input Dimension	1. The various groups and organizations that make demands to the Branch. 2. Formal structures and procedures used to: (a) Maintain contact with environment. (b) Identify relevant input from the environment. (c) Activate system to transform inputs into outputs.	(i) The Branch (ii) Selected members of various organizations	(a) Document search (b) Interview
Transformation Dimension	1. All the operations that bring about the transformation of inputs into outputs. 2. The orientation of the Branch to its task. 3. The involvement of the environment in the planning practices and the connection of educational planning in other fields. 4. The kind of planning undertaken in terms of duration. 5. The scope of the planning undertaken. 6. Connection of planning to organizational processes.	(i) The Branch (ii) Documents (iii) Selected members of various organizations	(a) Document search (b) Interview (c) Observation
Outputs and Implementation Dimension	1. Nature of outputs: (a) Product utility. (b) Service utility. 2. Orientation to task, especially in: (a) dissemination. (b) implementation of outputs.	(i) The Branch (ii) Documents (iii) Selected members of various organizations	(a) Document search (b) Interview (c) Observation
Feedback Dimension	(c) 1. Structures and procedures employed to: (a) Receive and process people's perceptions. (b) Encourage feedback. (c) Expedite action on feedback information	(i) The Branch (ii) Selected officials of various organizations	(a) Document search (b) Interview.

Figure 5

Data Collection Matrix

Consequent to this concern, the investigator searched for a suitable planning model. Although no single model appeared adequate, especially in its specificity, to guide the study, the Almond and Powell criteria for assessing and comparing the functions of different political systems seemed to have potential, and the seven ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" appeared to have a real possibility. Since both models showed some promise, the researcher decided to synthesize them into one model, later designated a paradigm. The outcome of this synthesis (the five-criterion paradigm shown in Figure 4) and its application to the study, is discussed below.

Criterion I of the paradigm sought an understanding of the orientation or sense of direction that characterized the practices of the Branch. Included in this criterion were references to philosophy, view of education, stance to the future, and techniques for approaching the future. Therefore, in analysing Branch practices, special attention was paid to the above dimensions and the processes employed to attain them.

The second criterion focussed on the context, the interrelated conditions in which the Branch existed. Like the first criterion, it had some variables as well. In applying this criterion to the study, it was essential to discover how the Branch aggregated the interests articulated to it by various groups, and the extent to which the groups were involved in Branch activities. Of equal importance was the need to determine whether or not educational planning was linked with planning in other fields.

The third criterion concerned the type of planning which the

Branch engaged in. Specifically, this criterion sought to know whether the planning undertaken had short-range, medium-range, or long-range perspectives, and whether it was concerned with both the qualitative as well as the quantitative aspects of educational planning. Notwithstanding the nature and purposes of the plans made, the need to implement them can hardly be overemphasized. Adams (1976:2-3) stressed the need for planners to indicate how the directions they suggest might be achieved:

> . . . the end result of the efforts of planners is a plan which provides certain technical data and suggested directions . . . . Little if any attention is directed toward the process whereby such directions might be achieved.

Therefore, in applying this criterion to the study, it was essential to know not only the nature and focus of the planning undertaken, but also the procedures indicated for achieving the suggested directions.

The fourth criterion was concerned with the scope of the activities undertaken in the Branch, and the communication of these activities, both within the Branch and between the Branch and its environment. In applying this criterion to the study, it was necessary to determine the range of the activities and the extent of the geographical area covered, plus the processes and procedures employed to disseminate information from the Branch to the various parts of the province.

Finally, the fifth criterion sought to determine the connection between planning and other organizational processes. This was consistent with the definition in Chapter 2 wherein planning was defined as a component of the total decision-making process in an organization. In applying this criterion to the study, it was considered crucial to examine the influence and power of planners, and their impact on the administration of education in the province.

Generally, the application of these five criteria to the data collected facilitated not only the analysis of those data, but also their interpretation. Besides, the paradigm enabled the researcher to sharpen the focus of the study and to determine its end or terminal point.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4

Presented in this chapter was the methodology that was employed to study the planning practices of the Branch. Generally, the systems theory provided the basis of the methodology utilized as it was used to generate both the subproblems and the data that were collected.

In the first part of the chapter, called "Design of the Study," was discussed the various techniques that were employed in gathering information--specifically, observation, document search, and interview. The choices and merits of each of these techniques were supplied, and the section concluded with a matrix for collecting data.

In the second part, called the "Data Treatment," was provided the paradigm that was used for analysing the collected data. The remainder of the section was devoted to application of the paradigm to the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. The use

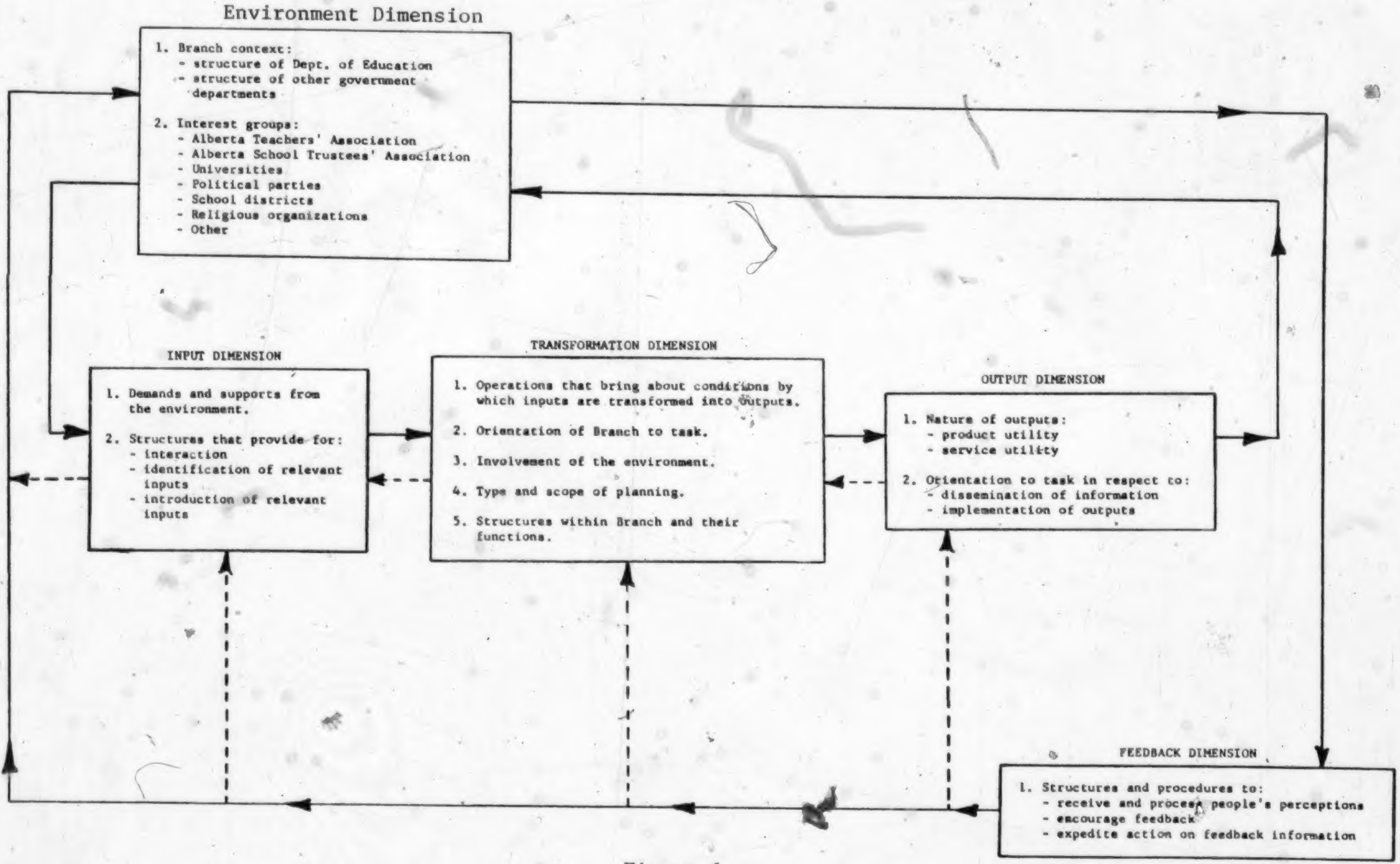
Environment Dimension
1. Branch context:
- structure of Dept. of Education
- structure of other government departments
2. Interest groups:
- Alberta Teachers' Association
- Alberta School Trustees' Association
- Universities
- Political parties
- School districts
- Religious organizations
- Other
INPUT DIMENSION
1. Demands and supports from the environment.
2. Structures that provide for:
- interaction
- identification of relevant inputs
- introduction of relevant inputs
TRANSFORMATION DIMENSION
1. Operations that bring about conditions by which inputs are transformed into outputs.
2. Orientation of Branch to task.
3. Involvement of the environment.
4. Type and scope of planning.
5. Structures within Branch and their functions.
OUTPUT DIMENSION
1. Nature of outputs:
- product utility
- service utility
2. Orientation to task in respect to:
- dissemination of information
- implementation of outputs
FEEDBACK DIMENSION
1. Structures and procedures to:
- receive and process people's perceptions
- encourage feedback
- expedite action on feedback information

Figure 6

Study Model

of the paradigm became necessary as it was more planning specific whereas the system theory was too generall. However, the systems model was not discarded as it was used indirectly throughout the analysis of the data. Generally, application of the five criteria to the data analysis proved advantageous, as it enabled the researcher to sharpen the focus of the study, and also to determine the terminal point for the analysis. In Figure 6 is emphasized the system theory with particular application to the Branch that was studied. It has five dimensions, namely, environment, input, transformation, output, and feedback. Each of these dimensions gives a breakdown of the elements contained in it from and against which the data were collected and analysed by means of the paradigm developed and shown in Figure 4 on page 94. In addition, the dynamic nature of a system is also displayed in a two-way-street arrangement whereby the environment emits inputs for initial transformation and then feedback with respect to the outputs received.

To appreciate this dynamic nature of a system operation, the next chapter provides the analysis of the practices of the Branch, beginning from inputs to feedback.

Chapter 5

ANALYSIS OF BRANCH PLANNING PRACTICES

INTRODUCTION

As in Chapter 4, this chapter is divided into two parts, the first of which contains a brief description of the Alberta Department of Education in general, and that of the Planning Branch in particular. This description provides background information considered vital for understanding the activities of the Branch. The second part contains an analysis of the practices of the Branch. The chapter concludes with a few tentative remarks on the analyses.

DESCRIPTION OF ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

To understand the Branch's role in educational planning and research, it was necessary to determine its position in relation to the whole Department of Education (hereinafter referred to as the Department), of which it forms an integral part. In the first place, the importance of the Department as the principal provincial agency for both development and coordination of the total education endeavour was recognized. In order to understand educational planning in the province, it was necessary, therefore, to examine the mechanisms employed by the Department.

Perhaps the most appropriate way to indicate the Branch's position relative to the rest of the Department is by examining the structure of the Department itself (see Figure 7).

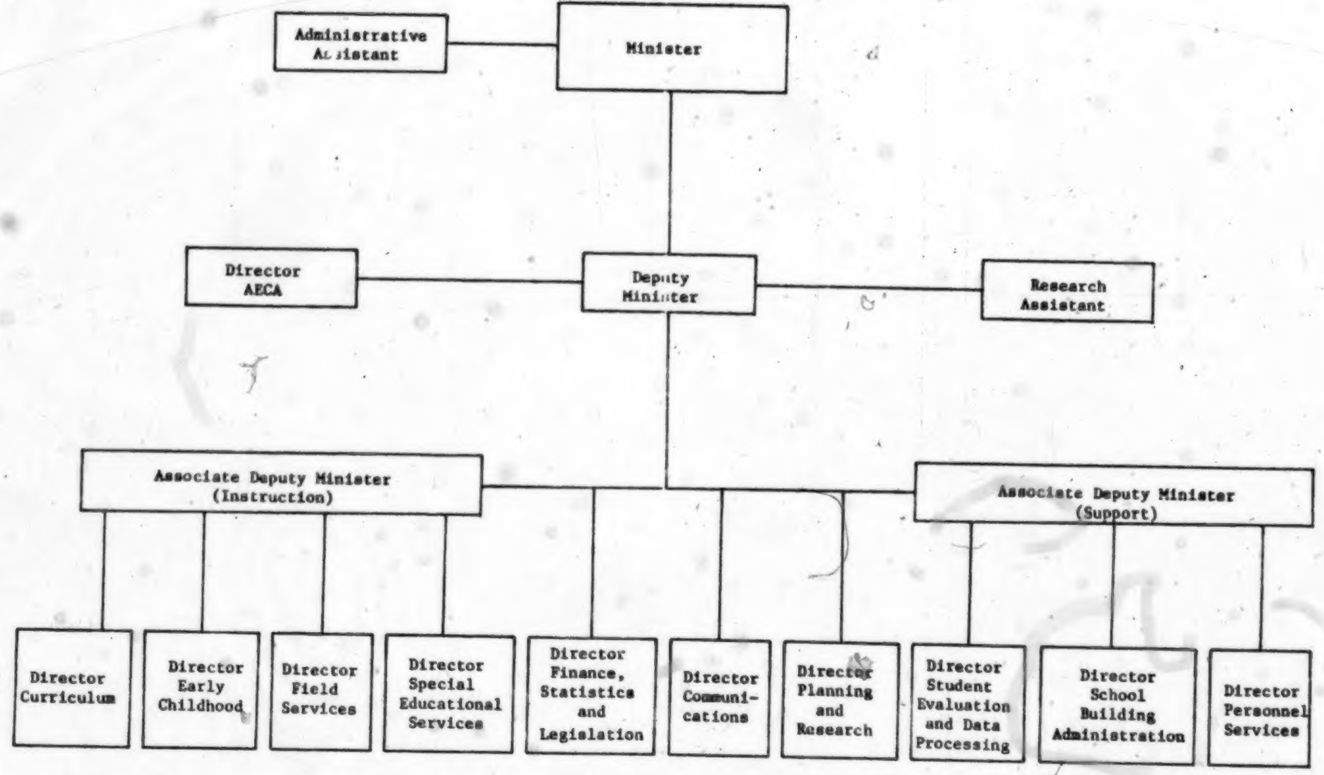
Administrative Assistant
Minister
Director AECA
Deputy Minister
Research Assistant
Associate Deputy Minister (Instruction)
Associate Deputy Minister (Support)
Director Curriculum
Director Early Childhood
Director Field Services
Director Special Educational Services
Director Finance, Statistics and Legislation
Director Communications
Director Planning and Research
Director Student Evaluation and Data Processing
Director School Building Administration
Director Personnel Services

Figure 7

Structure of Alberta Department of Education

As shown in the chart, the minister of education, who is a full provincial cabinet member and the political person responsible for the Department, is the highest authority, and is always a member of the ruling party. Below him is the deputy minister, who is a civil servant at the top of the organizational hierarchy. The deputy minister is the highest public officer in the Department and is responsible for its entire operation. In addition, the minister has an administrative assistant who is not a line officer. This officer's responsibility is to provide a link between the minister and the administrative units within the Department. For example, when the minister is in need of certain vital information, it is the administrative assistant who contacts the relevant sections for it. In the same way, when the various units wish to contact the minister, it is this same officer whom they contact first. At the deputy minister's level, there are two staff positions. One is that of the director of all Alberta Education Communications Authority, whose responsibility includes educational television and radio programs. The other position is that of the research assistant--the right-hand man to the deputy minister; he handles all requests for information and, whenever the deputy minister is unable to attend meetings, he often deputizes for him. Under the deputy minister are two associate deputy ministers responsible for instruction and support services. The associate deputy minister for instruction is in charge of the branches concerned with curriculum, early childhood services, field services, and special educational services. Under the associate deputy minister for support services come such branches as student evaluation and data processing, school building administration, and personnel services. It is important to note that each of these branches is headed by a director, most of whom are line officers. As well, there are three other branches which come directly under the deputy minister, but not under the two associate deputy ministers: (1) finance, statistics, and legisltion; (2) communications; and (3) planning and research.

As pointed out by Stringham and Ledgerwood (1972), a new structure known as the directors' council was created in 1968, consisting of the heads of all branches within the Department. Its main role is to provide a link between the various branches within the Department.

In order to understand the activities of the Planning Branch (a sub-system of the Department), it is vital that one be aware of the various levels within the Department at which planning takes place. Although the planning function is generally ongoing in all the departmental structures, there are five discernible levels at which planning can be said to take place: political, departmental, divisional, branch, and program.

At the political level, planning emphasis is placed on the establishment of educational priorities in the light of the overall goals identified by the provincial government. This type of planning normally takes place either in the cabinet or in the cabinet committee on education. The outcomes of these planning endeavours are often transmitted to various levels for further refinement and, in a number of cases, for implementation.

At the departmental level, most of the planning is done under the auspices of the directors' council. This council, being the link between the different branches, examines and re-examines branch efforts and advises them as to what actions to take. Some of the input into this council originates from the political level. A number of these inputs normally come in the form of political issues, and it is the duty of the council to transform them into authoritative issues for implementation or otherwise. Where the directors' council feels that certain issues should be emphasized or de-emphasized (depending on political feasibility), the position of the council is often upheld. This holds good irrespective of the level at which the issues originate. However, there are times when the minister feels strongly about certain issues and, in such cases, the council has no alternative but to go with the minister's decision. Generally, few or no matters affecting future directions of the Department proceed from it to the minister or to the government before having received approval of the directors' council.

The nature of planning tends to be specialized at the Branch level, since most branches have specific responsibilities. At this level, planning is often done by directors together with members of their branches. However, within a branch itself, different units often engage in planning of one form or another. These efforts may be classified as program planning.

Although most branches engage in specialized kinds of planning, the Branch undertakes a much more comprehensive type. Its inputs originate from both the Department and from sources external to it. As a service unit to the Department, a good many of its inputs have their origins in the various other branches within the Department;

this will become evident later on in the chapter. The intent here is to describe the relationship of the Branch to the rest of the Department.

The Planning and Research Branch

The Branch is a service unit of the Department and is comprised of two sections--policy and research. The policy section is primarily concerned with policy analysis and development, while the research section deals with research of a cross-sectional nature. Both sections serve a varying mix of client groups, which make recommendations to the minister through appropriate departmental personnel. Further, both sections are neither policy disseminating or policy implementation units, nor are they directly involved in formative evaluation. The focus of the Branch falls, in varying degrees, to undertaking research, design, development, and summative evaluation functions, either jointly or independently as the situation dictates.

The staff of the Branch is appointed under Section 5(1) of the Department of Education Act, and its legal status is derived from the same section of the act. As members of the public service they are expected to conduct their personal affairs in such a way that public interest is not compromised. They are expected to provide impartial advice to the government of the day. Both the power and the authority of the Branch are derived from four sources: the minister, the deputy minister, the directors' council, and the appropriate director (where another branch is utilizing the consultative and/or research services of the Branch).

The structure of the Branch is depicted in Figure 8. According to this chart, the director (a civil servant) is the head of the Branch. Although not a line branch, its director is a line officer whose responsibility is to take full charge of all Branch operations. He assumes overall responsibility for supervision and coordination of all Branch activities and integration of its policy and research components. Below him are two associate directors--one in charge of the policy section, the other in charge of the research section. Under the associate director of planning are an evaluation consultant and an economic consultant. Under the associate director of research are a projects consultant and a research consultant. The associate director of planning is charged with the responsibility of: (1) assisting in identifying problems and generating policy alternatives; (2) assembling studies; and (3) assisting in budgeting and refining resource allocation models. The associate director of research is in charge of conducting, participating in, and/or coordinating research studies.

The ensuing section provides analyses of the practices of the Branch.

ANALYSES OF THE PLANNING PRACTICES OF THE BRANCH

The analyses of the planning practices of the Branch were guided by the five criteria developed in Chapter 3 and further illustrated in Chapter 4. As indicated in Chapter 3, each of the five criteria dealt specifically with a particular aspect of the functions of the Branch. These different criteria are presented sequentially in the ensuing sections, beginning with Criterion 1.

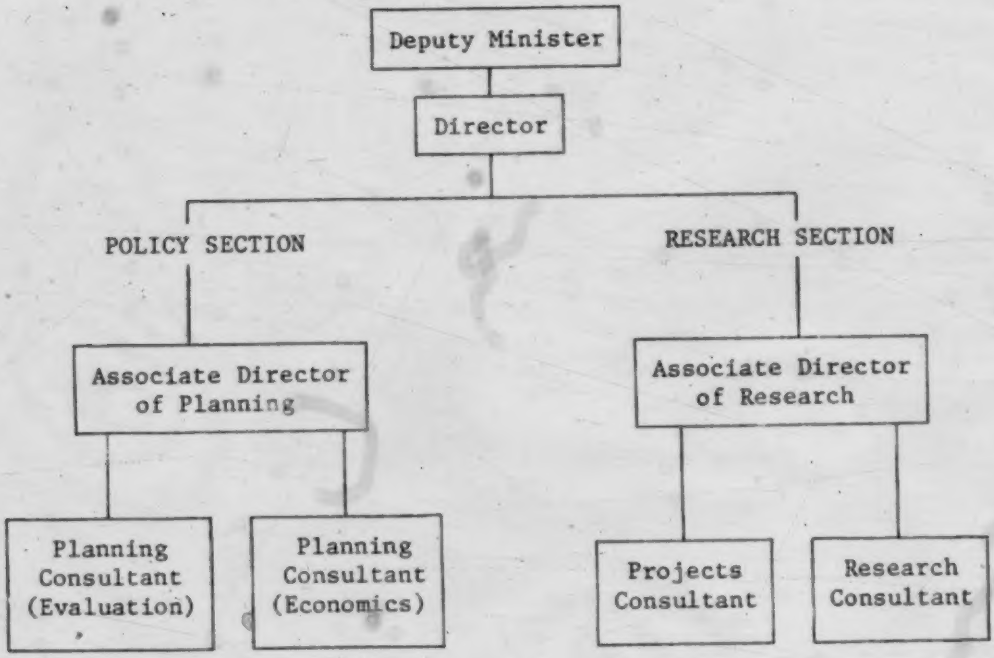
Deputy Minister
Director
POLICY SECTION
RESEARCH SECTION
Associate Director of Planning
Associate Director of Research
Planning Consultant (Evaluation)
Planning Consultant (Economics)
Projects Consultant
Research Consultant

Figure 8

Structure of the Planning and Research Branch

Before presenting the analyses, some indication must be made of the sources of information that was analysed. As indicated in Chapter 4, pages 89 through 93, the data were obtained in three ways, namely: (1) on-the-spot observation; (2) official documents search; and (3) interview. In connection with item 2, a list of official documents studied appears in Appendix B. As regards interviews, Appendices A and C furnish both the interview schedules as well as a list of those interviewed.

CRITERION 1: ORIENTATION TO TASK

The principal focus of Criterion 1 was the orientation of the planning practices of the Branch. To probe this orientation, a number of variables were examined: (1) the philosophy on which the planning practices were based; (2) the view of education held by the Branch; (3) the stance the Branch took toward the future; and (4) the methods employed for approaching the future. Each of the above variables was examined and analysed as shown below.

Findings

The philosophy. The philosophy characterizing the activities of the Branch was enshrined in a discussion paper which was presented to various interest groups for discussion before the inception of the Branch in March, 1975. In light of the discussions held, this philosophy was reviewed, slightly modified, and published in an official Branch handbook entitled, *Policies and Procedures: Alberta Education*. In it, the philosophy of the Branch was stated in the following terms

(Alberta Government, 1975:A3.0):

> The philosophy of the Branch relates primarily to the conceptual and operational integration of policy development and developmental research. It is believed that together with information, coordination and management supporting systems, policy development and research constitute the primary components of an effective planning system.
>
> Research provides the necessary information for policy development.
>
> If developmental research is to be integrated with policy development and hence decision-making, there is need for structures and linkage mechanisms at the provincial and local levels.
>
> Generally . . . , a modified "problem solving model" to policy developmental research is followed, recognizing that issues have different social networks and therefore that mechanisms for meaningful public involvement are essential.
>
> The Branch serves as a service agency to the province generally and the Ministry in particular.

Discussion

The above philosophy characterizes and guides the activities of the Branch. Although specific objectives and workplans have been reviewed and updated every six months, no drastic departure from the stated philosophy has been evident; on the contrary, there has always been strict adherence to its broad specifications. However, as far as mechanisms for meaningful public involvement in the activities of the Branch are concerned, six of those interviewed stated that the public was not meaningfully involved in the activities of the Branch. Their contention was that the Branch was under the control of the Department and, therefore, under the control of the minister. As a result, it tended to "toe" the government "line," which at times conflicted with demands articulated by various interest groups.

Further, there appeared to be a silent aspect of Branch philosophy that had not been spelt out in the official handbook. This has to do with the mode of operation of the Branch. Two senior officials of the Department interviewed emphasized the need for the Branch to operate on an open system mode in order to avoid conflicts that could arise within the Department. They emphasized that this was particularly so if the Branch chose to hoard information. To forestall such an eventuality, the Branch was supposed to operate on an open system mode. Although it naturally operated within certain limits, it was generally expected to provide information to those needing it. The implication here is that employees have to be carefully recruited to ensure that this philosophical standpoint is not violated.

Findings

View of education. The Branch's view of education is prefaced on the overall provincial government policy which focusses on societal well-being. In keeping with the government's stated policy, the Department views its role as that of providing the people of Alberta with a quality education (from kindergarten through Grade 12), the rationale being that education enables a society to transcend itself --raise itself to a higher state or level of well-being. Thus, the function of the Branch is to provide necessary information which will enable the Department and the educational system as a whole to maximize their effectiveness and efficiency. The Branch recognizes that decision-makers, whether political or civil service, need rapid access to relevant information in order to make decisions; without information, the decision-maker is reduced either to making hasty decisions or to waiting for the needed information. In the former instance, the probability is high that decisions might be less than optimal. In the latter instance, the decision-maker may have to re-examine the problem in the light of new information. Thus, in both cases, effectiveness and/or efficiency inevitably have to suffer. The involvement of the Branch in decision-making was spelt out in general terms in the handbook (Alberta Government, 1975:A2.1) as:

> [The] . . . Branch is a service unit with two sections. One section is concerned primarily with policy analysis and development and the other is primarily concerned with issue-oriented research of a cross-sectional nature. The research section, while often involved in the policy aspects of research studies, is more concerned with the generation, collection and analyses of the data needed for policy recommenders and makers outside of the Branch. Both policy and research sections serve a varying mix of client groups which ultimately make recommendations to the Minister through appropriate departmental personnel . . . .

Discussion

In cognizance of the government's overall policy, and, indeed, of the role the Department plays in interpreting that policy into action, the Branch as a service unit has tended to view its role in education as that of facilitating the delivery of quality education to Alberta citizens. It has also played the role of initiator in that it has often proposed certain measures and provided resources it believed could improve the quality of education in the province. As an initiator, the Branch has chiefly been involved in organizing and motivating. In organization, it has spearheaded the establishment of work groups and channels of communication which have facilitated the injection of new ideas, mainly through research, into the practices of education in the province.

Stance toward future. As pointed out in Chapter 3, Berghofer's (1972) formulation of the various techniques for approaching the future proved useful in both determining and analysing the stance taken by the Branch toward the future. To reiterate, Berghofer (1972:18-22) contended that the future could be approached as: (1) a continuation of the present; (2) an extrapolation of the present; (3) a single alternative future; (4) a technological future; and (5) a comprehensive future.

Findings

An analysis of the activities of the Branch revealed that the Branch takes a stance to the future, although no attempts at prescribing what such a future might be were evident. Generally, the diversity of activities undertaken reflected not only the heterogeneity inherent in the province, but also strong North American liberal traditions which emphasize, among other things, progress through pragmatism, individualism, technological advancement, reward based upon individual achievement, optimism, and reform. Given the diversity plus the liberal traditions, the Branch generally appeared geared toward approaching a comprehensive future which would not only ensure present diversity, but one which would also enhance reform. Unlike Worth (1972)--who attempted to build a futures perspective into his scheme through an examination of the following six general concepts: (1) problem-solving, (2) communication, (3) valuing, (4) leisure and creativity, (5) life-experience, and (6) special concerns--the Branch identified only problem-solving, although it alluded to several others, including communication.

Discussion

Although a number of interviewees felt their observations had shown that the dominant political forces in the province appeared to view educational planning more as an agent of maintenance--and therefore of uncertainty avoidance--than of change, nevertheless, the nature of the activities undertaken tended to cast the Branch in a catalytic role in educational administration and development in the province. In this role, the Branch has for the most part remained alert to, and supported, emerging tendencies toward change by extending financial backing to them and by involving its personnel in such activities. Thus, Branch activities can be characterized by their determination to open the future and to increase the capability of individuals to adapt themselves to such a future. In this connection, the Branch has come close to Worth's (1972:37) dream, when he stated:

> We have been colonized by the past. Surely our lesson is that we must not constrain the future. Our task is to open it--to increase each individual's adaptability by helping him to discern the pattern of future events so that he may reach out and humanize distant tomorrows.

In a Branch memorandum entitled, "Branch Key Results Areas" (Alberta Government, December 8, 1974), an attempt was made to spell out these areas. Listed among them was futures research, prefaced on the rationale that forecasting the future serves at least two purposes: (1) it enables better planning, and (2) scenarios may help in identifying alternatives which could be either avoided, or used as a basis for planning future actions. Although no specific activities on futures research were evident, the total effort was, nevertheless, future-oriented. The absence of activities that might be considered to belong to futures research, as such, helps to emphasize the difficulty of producing vitally important blueprints for approaching the future. Commenting on futures forecasts, Worth (1972:1) had this to say:

> While not blueprints of tomorrow, the forecasts do offer a glimpse of foreseeable conditions for education. They provide vantage points for assessing where we should be headed. They suggest some leverage points for influencing the direction and the pace of change . . . .

Although the Branch had not by 1978 come up with these so-called blueprints, its activities have generally been geared to the future; after all, any kind of planning must be future-oriented. This point will be discussed and developed in the sections that follow.

Findings

Methods for approaching the future. All the methods employed for approaching the future were based on the three cardinal principles or policies identified in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:2), as follows:

1. A policy which views education as an instrument of social change.
2. A policy directed toward qualitative improvement of education; and
3. A policy which emphasizes increased efficiency in the operation of all levels of the education system.

These policies have been implicit in most of the activities of the Branch. In order to realize their implementation, the Branch was divided into two major sections: (1) planning and (2) research. The major thrust of both sections was the establishment and integration of policy analysis and developmental research supported by the development and utilization of information, coordination, and management elements. Three types of programs were envisioned for the Branch. These, like the cardinal principles, were also spelt out in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:21);

1. Programs internal to the department, for example, cataloging of existing policies.
2. Programs (research studies, etc.) initiated or supervised by the department, directly, for example, studies conducted by external agencies in total or in part.
3. Programs of grants-in-aid to institutions, organizations and individuals.

These programs have been the thrust of the Branch, and since they are central to its existence, activities falling under each of the programs are enumerated below.

Category I of the programs comprised tasks assigned to the Branch by the deputy minister and the directors' council, consultative and advisory services to other branch heads, analyses and development of internal policy matters and strategies for their implementation, maintenance of a research inventory, and collection, publication, and dissemination of appropriate projects, and the on-going coordination function both interdepartmental as well as intergovernmental.

Category II of the programs involved mainly issue-oriented research studies originating from a multiplicity of sources, such as the minister or the department, or with some other institution, organization, or individual approved by the minister and supervised directly by the Department.

Finally, Category III of the programs involved grants-in-aid for governmental research. These programs differed from the others in at least four ways: (1) they were primarily meant to reflect local needs; (2) they were to be initiated by organizations, institutions, or individuals; (3) they were meant to meet general requirements and be approved by the minister; and (4) they were meant to be administered directly by the Branch or a decentralized unit, such as regional offices of education or a combination of these and others.

Of the three programs mentioned above, the last one was the least visible to Branch environment; the reason for this was hard to ascertain. It may well be that the program had not been implemented because its express aim was to involve all concerned not only in making decisions as to what should be done, but also in the implementation of such decisions. Evidence showed that this program was deliberately delayed in order to allow for public participation, a point which was emphasized in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:22) as follows:

> The grants-in-aid programs should be delayed to allow for public participation in the planning of the guidelines for the administration of this fund. It is particularly essential that the purposes and procedures of grants-in-aid be understood by all concerned.

Since the Branch was divided into two sections, each is described separately below, so that one may appreciate the methods employed to attain the comprehensive future.

The Planning Section. The need for educational planning in the province had manifested itself well before 1969 when a commission of educational planning was established. Consequently, when the Branch was created, it was not a question of whether a need for planning existed, but rather, what type of planning was needed. In attempting to come to grips with this problem, it was decided that the single greatest need in planning was the integration of research and policy development, while recognizing the respective roles of stakeholders and the public-at-large, so that policy-makers could be assisted in their decision-making function. In the area of policy development, six models described by Stringham, and identified by Dye (Stringham, 1974:24-27) were examined. As cited in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:8), they were:

1. The elite-mass model (Dye and Zeigler, 1970);
2. The group model (Truman, 1951);
3. The national model (Dror, 1968);
4. The incremental model (Lindbloom, 1959);
5. The institutional model (Friedrick, 1941); and
6. The systems model (Easton, 1965).

The six models were carefully examined and found to overlap in certain aspects. This finding was consistent with Stringham's earlier argument that the five models could, in fact, be classified as segments of the systems model under two distinct aspects: (1) structural and (2) functional. The structural aspect referred to the types of input into the policy-making cycle, while the functional aspect related to the manner in which output (systems policy) is determined.

The discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:9), which was released as the government's policy paper on the creation of the Branch, argued in favour of the systems model as the most suitable, since it was all-embracing and represented a realistic stance:

> . . . the systems approach to policy-making recognizes that the other models . . . are components of the total decision system and will have a different bearing on policy development on the issue at hand. Furthermore, all models are rational and the "rational model" . . . assumes that all variables are known and that none is neglected; this represents an ideal situation but not a realistic one.

Stringham's (1974) analysis serves to illustrate the difficulty inherent in dealing with models as pure forms. Every model contains at least an element of one or more models. To argue for pure forms seems an unrealistic stance to take, since all models, to a large degree, are based on human behaviour, which cannot be said to be unique by any stretch of the imagination. Generally, human behaviour tends to be uniform, with a few minor variations here and there. However, in the field of planning, at least, the systems approach seems to have a decided advantage. Worth (1972:225) strongly argued in favour of the systems theory in the field of planning when he stated:

> . . . the conceptual basis for planning is best provided by what might be identified as the systems view, or general systems theory . . . . In essence, this approach implies the intent to analyse particular problems or activities in the context of some totality, to identify objectives of unit or action, and to consider the interrelated activities that are required to achieve the objectives . . . .

He further stated:

> Activity of planning itself is even more closely related to systems analysis. The general stages in the analysis are conceptualizations of the system . . . in terms of its main structures and processes specifying goals and objectives, generating and evaluating alternatives, and program implementation.

The position taken by Worth represents his considered evaluation of the systems theory, and, indeed, he may have been instrumental in the creation of the Branch. When articulating a need for the establishment of a planning unit, he had said (1972:137):

> A unit for joint planning is indispensable. It would coordinate, support and supplement the work done in planning by each of the four operating decisions. Its prime objective would be to ensure the availability of data--the hard facts--that will enable legislators and departmental personnel to both make informed decisions and assess results.

In cognizance of the above recommendation, the planning or policy unit was established to discharge, among its other duties, the following set of responsibilities, as stated in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:16-17):

1. To assist in identifying problems and generating policy alternatives. This was to be accomplished through:
    (a) evaluating current conditions,
    (b) identifying discrepancies between goals and current conditions,
    (c) generating alternatives for reducing identified discrepancies,
    (d) identifying the current and future implications for each alternative, including financial implications, and
    (e) identifying criteria for selection from among alternatives.
2. To foster the assembly of futures studies. This was to be accomplished via:
    (a) assembling futures forecasts to analyse trends,

   (b) analysing trends, and
   (c) developing enrolment forecasts.

3. To assist in budgeting and refining resource allocation models by:
   (a) an appraisal of resource requirements, prediction and allocation models, and
   (b) assisting the development of provincial cost estimation models.

Discussion

An examination of the above functions showed that most of them were closely related to Department-initiated studies shown under Category II of the program thrust. This perhaps explains the reasons why the activities of this section of the Branch were not visible to the general public since the inputs did not originate from them. It appeared as if the section made little or no attempt at encouraging various interest groups to get involved, either directly or indirectly, in its activities. Thus, the various interest groups were extremely critical, asserting that a failure to involve stakeholders inevitably means that planning may become a downward process whereby planners make decisions at the top only to be transmitted downward for implementation. The fear was that such a practice could undermine a dialogue between planners and the citizenry and could, in the long run, affect citizen commitment to what is planned.

The literature surveyed generally supported involvement of the citizenry in planning. Weiler (1977:10-16) suggested that, ideally, planning and planners should play a catalytic role in the process of educational development and reform, in the sense that they would be alert to emerging and existing tendencies toward change in society at large, and attempt to identify ways in which they could "tune in" to such tendencies. For such catalysis to happen, a planner of education must be alert and ready to seize every available opportunity and momentum, and both utilize and reinforce it by appropriate plans for enhancing the quality of education. This kind of alertness, Weiler emphasized, requires that the planner exhibit a great deal of rather sophisticated awareness of society's potential for reform and change. This awareness, in turn, would depend on both fairly solid research and an extraordinary ability to communicate with the various layers of reality that make up a society. Since it is extremely difficult to communicate with reality from within a strongly hierarchical-bureaucratic structure, Weiler suggested that one important prerequisite for a more reform-oriented type of planning may be the de-bureaucratization of planning structures in the direction of more participatory and transparent processes for the formulation of planning targets and implementation strategies.

In other words, the move toward a more reform-oriented type of educational planning must have: (1) a knowledge element, in the sense of understanding better the forces that facilitate or hinder change in the society at large; and (2) a structural element, in the sense of opening up the planning process to possibilities of communication that would allow for a much more realistic and reliable assessment of the potential for and feasibility of reform than would be the case in more bureaucratic structures. The two are closely interlinked, but they also depend largely on the determination of planning personnel to break out of their accustomed cognitive and structural boundaries in order to participate with the citizenry in planning education.

As Freire (1968) put it, leaders cannot think without the people, nor for the people, but only with the people. Educational planners have to encourage citizenry participation in education. Worth (1972:224) was equally emphatic on the need to involve the citizenry in planning. In his view, ordinary citizens should not be regarded as mere clients but as active shapers of education and the future of society. Unlike Freire, however, Worth seemed to divide educational clients into two camps--those who can participate in planning and those who are to be considered as clients. According to him, clients need bold leadership, and they need to be planned for before they are to respond.

Other writers have been equally emphatic on the need to involve ordinary citizens in planning. Herrick, Bartholomew, and Brandt (1973:218) emphasized the importance of participation of the citizenry not only in school affairs but also in the planning of these affairs:

> . . . more active participation by people in the school and work situations results in their more active participation in community, state and national affairs.

Further, they suggested that personal and specific successes in influencing the nature of one's environment may lead to a decrease in political cynicism and a greater willingness to participate in the political process. This view was emphasized with equal strength by Gilbert and Eaton (1970) in their article, "Who Speaks for the Poor?"

The literature is, indeed, full of support for citizen participation in educational planning for various reasons, the most cogent of which is the need to secure at all times the commitment and the willingness of the citizenry to participate in activities envisioned for their well-being. Thus, through such a commitment political cynicism is minimized.

Findings

The Research Section. At the very outset, it was considered necessary to decide on the type of research the section was to undertake. To do so, it was essential to determine the distinction between "basic research" and "research as a component of planning." Basic research was defined in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:3) as "the acquisition, application and development of knowledge," whereas research as a component of planning was defined as "the creative application of knowledge." The former was regarded as belonging more to higher institutions of learning, under the aegis of the Alberta Department of Advanced Education, while the latter pertained more to the Planning and Research Section of the Department of Education.

Developmental research. Research as a component of planning --considered to be related to both applied research and experimental developmental research--when synthesized, came to be known as "developmental research." The major activities of developmental research were identified as: (1) assessment of needs of program development and implementation; (2) evaluation of ongoing curriculum or service programs; and (3) developing and testing different ways of delivering educational services.

A. Objectives of Developmental Research

The objectives of developmental research were considered to be twofold:

1. To provide assistance to decision-makers at local, regional, and provincial levels in resolving educational problems. This objective was to relate to locally initiated and provincially initiated research studies on administrative and policy decisions covering the spectrum of education, from kindergarten through Grade 12.

2. To foster the improvement of teaching and learning at the classroom level. Since the focus was on the teaching/learning situation, the projects under this objective were generally to be teacher-initiated and administered regionally.

In addition, developmental research was also to serve the following objectives: (1) to ensure provision for a continuation of a departmental research capability to serve departmental needs, and to encourage joint-departmental projects where appropriate; (2) to achieve effective communication of developmental research results to potential users and to facilitate dissemination of information on developmental research undertaken in Alberta and elsewhere; (3) to monitor relevant developmental research undertaken elsewhere and to evaluate the overall progress of developmental research in Alberta; and (4) to provide guidelines and allocate developmental research projects to organizations, public and private, with an effective research capability.

B. Havelock and Developmental Research

In order to implement the objectives outlined, Havelock's (1970:28-34) models or approaches for describing the utilization process of research and development were examined, with the express aim of deciding the most appropriate for the purpose. Havelock's three models are briefly described below:

1. Research, Development, and Diffusion Model:

   Fundamentally, this model involves basic research, applied research, development and testing of prototypes, mass production, packaging, and planned mass dissemination activities to the user.

2. Social Interaction Model:

   This model is based on five generalizations about the process of innovation diffusion:

   (1) that the individual user belongs to a network of social relations which largely influences his adoption behaviour;
   (2) that his place in the network is a good predictor of the rate of acceptance of new ideas;
   (3) that informal personal contact is vital;
   (4) that group membership and reference group identification are major predictors of individual adoption; and
   (5) that the rate of diffusion through social systems follows a predictable S-curve pattern.

3. Problem-Solving Model or a Mission Approach:

   This model is also based on a sequence of five events:

(1) a sequence of activities beginning with a need;
(2) a translation of these activities into a problem statement and diagnosis;
(3) followed by a meaningful search and retrieval of ideas leading to a solution;
(4) the user adapts the solution thus identified; and
(5) the user tries out and evaluates the solution in relation to the original need.

After close examination of the three models, the third was accepted by the Branch, as indicated in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:10):

> Although not restricted to one approach, the Planning and Research Branch contemplates utilizing the problem-solving approach in developmental research keeping in mind that these models are not mutually exclusive, but instead complementary. Both the linear approach and the Social Interation Approach lend themselves to a problem-solving approach with either a local or provincial focus.

C. The Continuum of Developmental Research

The Branch, having agreed upon the model to use, the continuum of developmental research was then decided upon. It was contended that developmental research has three main functional components: (1) research, (2) dissemination, and (3) evaluation. The three components could be found locally, regionally, or provincially. The crucial point as far as developmental research was concerned was in determining the focus of the endeavour and degree of interdependence between and among various sectors.

With regard to the structural dimension, this basically involves a decision as to who is to be involved in the research, dissemination, and evaluation. In this connection, it was recognized that too often social interaction and local involvement aspects did not receive adequate attention in change processes.

Therefore, in cognizance of the above functional, as well as structural, factors, the Branch, as stated in the discussion paper (Alberta Government, 1974:11), decided that they be reflected directly in the nature of the functions, type of personnel, and kinds of programs and activities which the Branch was to undertake. Accordingly, the following characteristics were considered vital (Alberta Government, 1974:11):

1. That there exist local, regional and provincial components in developmental research;
2. That developmental research serves decision-makers at these levels for the purpose of resolving problems and developing policies;
3. That there exist linkage mechanisms--locally, regionally, and provincially;
4. That public involvement be fostered by greater use of mechanisms such as:
    (a) public seminars;
    (b) task forces;
    (c) white papers; and
    (d) open-line media; and
5. That there exist the integrative mechanisms, internal and external to the Department, to bring developmental research and policy development together.

Functions of the Research Section. In light of the above, the Research Section of the Branch was charged with the responsibility for conducting, participating in, and coordinating research studies. Specifically, this entailed: (1) compilation of research findings and communication to appropriate users; (2) participation in shared-cost studies; (3) coordination of action-oriented research; and (4) provision of grants-in-aid for speculative search or research to meet local and/or departmental priorities.

Discussion

The evidence collected from interviews around the province showed that the activities of this section of the Branch have been very visible throughout the province. Two thirds of those interviewed stated that the Branch had made an impact on the general quality of education, both in its administration as well as in its delivery. Administrators had benefited from the findings of various studies undertaken and so had the classroom teachers.

However, one major criticism advanced was in connection with the scope of the kind of research activities undertaken. Six critics stated that the Branch had a tendency to go for short-range and "interesting" research topics, with little or no attention being given to long-term research. Thus, the Branch was generally perceived as being reactive to short-term problems. The motivation for all of this, they suggested, appeared to be a desire to discover acceptable alternatives, not necessarily alternatives which called for a marked departure from current practices of doing things.

Cyert and March (1963:165) have suggested that problemistic search tends to become a goal in itself in that it is stimulated by a problem and depressed by a problem solution. Opposed to this is the search for what they call "curiosity" or "understanding," the motivation for which is a search for understanding only insofar as such understanding contributes to control. In the function of planning, this kind of understanding might contribute to a theory of practice; for in order to achieve theories of practice, better systems for generating data about practice in the course of school and school system operations must be instituted. What kinds of information, for instance, will help to identify questions and provide clues about those support systems used by principals which contribute most to teaching and learning? What information systems are needed to facilitate problem diagnoses of leader behaviour, prescriptions to improve this behaviour, the extent to which prescriptions are implemented, and the outcomes of solutions attempted? Undoubtedly, data gathered from practice could not only help generate research questions, but could also contribute to training, resulting in improvement of practice and, in the long range, supporting the development of a theory of practice.

The same six critics further stated that, contrary to the traditional, logical account of the planning process--which ultimately suggests an unswerving attention to a given objective--the Branch appeared to avoid political risk-taking and uncertainty by focussing on short-run research topics specifically designed at stabilizing the environment. In this kind of orientation, an inclination to deal with problems as they occurred tended to develop. Requests for proposals, which had unrealistic time or budget limits, were announced on short notice, and thus the researchers were placed in a take-it-or-leave-it position. Such ventures, they contended, may serve only to reduce rather than to enhance the probability of expanded future collaboration between the Branch and researchers in different institutions or organizations. Initiatives to remedy the situation, they suggested, could--and probably should--come from both sides. Educational researchers could undertake to inform the Branch as to what linkages might be developed as part of an overall research policy. The Branch could take the initiative to inform itself about the contributions which educational research can make and the alternative structures through which those contributions could be made.

In addition to these general discusssions, more researchers could concern themselves with the issues and problems that have direct implications for the fields of policy and practice. The initiatives of individual researchers might do much to create favourable working relationships between the Branch (the producers) and the consumers of research.

The six critics felt that what was at stake was the survival of the Branch itself. The demise of a similar organization in the province was still fresh in the memories of those working in the Branch. Therefore, in order for the Branch to maintain its existence, its activities had to be visible in the environment. In fact, the more they contribute to solutions of immediate problems, the better. Such orientation meant that the Branch had no alternative but to pay more attention to immediate and short-term problems, rather than engage in long-term planning and research.

One senior Branch official agreed that a lot of their planning and research did, indeed, tend to be of a short-range nature, although they also undertook long-range planning. Their reasons for doing so, however, were quite different from those given above. He stated that since the Branch was a service unit to the ministry (Alberta Government, 1974:A3.0), the scope of its activities were limited to the needs of the Department and the education community it served. If the Department had immediate and pressing problems the Branch had no alternative but to deal with them. For example, questions raised in the legislature were always referred to the Branch for answers, some of which could require a certain amount of research. In such cases, the Branch had no option but to conduct such research.

In addition to research topics originating from the Department and/or legislature, different organizations, institutions, and even individuals, often conducted research for the Branch. They did so by submitting research proposals to the Branch for its consideration. Depending on the quality of the proposal, and the nature of the topic, funds would often be granted for the research. Such research might be of short- or long-range perspectives.

The literature surveyed clearly seemed to give credence to both short-range as well as long-range research. As a matter of fact, the two types of research were said to complement one another. The short-range type provided knowledge and techniques for carrying out long-range research. As Cook (1971) put it, there are several types and levels of objectives that can be identified for research. Long-range objectives are statements of the organization's intents over an extended period of time; in a means/end situation, they become the ends. Emphasizing the point further, Cook (1971:32) said that, "if long-range objectives are the ends, then short-range objectives become the means or the way in which long-range objectives can be met."

It follows, therefore, that short-range objectives must support long-range objectives, particularly where a hierarchy of objectives exists. However, where it does not exist, each objective tends to become an end in itself. Since there appeared to be no hierarchy of research objectives, the studies conducted by the Branch were probably ends in themselves. Thus, a need probably exists to synthesize the research results obtained according to subject areas. An inventory of projects, either completed or in progress, is not likely to meet the same need.

In this first criterion, the orientation of the planning activities of the Branch has been examined and analysed. In Criterion 2, the Branch and its environment will be analysed.

CRITERION 2: THE ENVIRONMENT

For this criterion, an attempt was made to analyse the contact between the Branch and its environment. In determining the contact between the two, it was inevitable that one had to analyse the interaction component of the input process; in order to do so, the following variables were examined: (1) interest groups within the environment, (2) interest aggregation as well as interest articulation, (3) degree of citizen participation, (4) connections between educational planning and planning in other fields, and (5) nature of planning practices.

As in Criterion 1, the variables were examined sequentially, beginning from the first and proceeding through to the fifth.

Findings

Groups within the environment. To identify the most active groups within the environment, interviews with the officials of the Branch were conducted, and a documentary search was made. These procedures made it possible to determine the major interest groups associated with the Branch. Contrary to this researcher's expectations, ordinary citizens were not actively involved in the Branch's activities; however, the following groups were heavily involved: (1) The Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA), (2) The Alberta School Trustees Association (ASTA), (3) the Conference of Alberta Schools Superintendents (CASS), and (4) Alberta universities. Political parties did not appear to make direct political demands on the Branch, although they did so indirectly through questions in the legislature and through the Minister of Education, himself a politician. Religious organizations were not active in making direct demands on the Branch; however, their input into the operation of the Department was considered significant. The Alberta Chamber of Commerce, often associated with demands for return to the "basics," did not apparently articulate their demands to the Branch. Finally, since the Branch was established as a service unit for the Department, the other branches were interested in its activities in several ways. First, since they viewed the

Branch as having access to certain kinds of information, they looked to it to provide such information to them. Second, they expected the Branch to perform certain functions; for example, the Curriculum Branch expected the Planning and Research Branch to evaluate their school programs.

Interest aggregation and articulation. According to Almond and Powell (1966), interest aggregation is the function of converting demands into general policy alternatives. Thus, when a political party receives complaints and demands from various sections of society, and attempts through bargains to compromise the conflicting interests into some form of a policy statement, it is said to be engaging in interest aggregation. Interest articulation is the process by which individuals and groups make demands upon political decision-makers and constitutes the first functional step in the political conversion process. It is important in that it marks a boundary between society and the political system. Through interest articulation, whether from élites or from masses, conflicts inherent in the political culture and the social structure become evident.

Perhaps of all the interest groups identified on page 135, the most active and certainly the most interested in the outcomes of the Branch was the ATA. From a purely professional point of view, they were interested in the outputs accruing from the Planning and Research Branch. Secondly, as deliverers of educational service to the pupil-consumers, their interest was mainly twofold. In the first place, they wished to be fully conversant with the educational packages they could be called upon to deliver. In the second place, they wanted not only to ensure their participation in activities leading to the creation of those packages, they also wanted to originate some of them for research. As an enlightened group in society, they were interested in having and promoting the best education possible. All their interests were aggregated by local ATA associations which transmitted them to their provincial headquarters where they were finally articulated to the Branch. The interest of the ATA has been a constant feature in educational development in the province. Even before the Branch was established, the ATA, through various resolutions, had been making demands for such a facility. For example, in a memorandum submitted to the minister of education (ATA, 1972a:6), the ATA stated:

> The dissolution of the Human Resources [Research] Council has left a considerable void in the educational research function in Alberta. Alberta needs a publicly financed, independent research agency which can provide direct assistance to teachers and school systems with field tryouts, action research and analysis and evaluation of ongoing programs . . . .

In the same year, the ATA annual representative assembly passed a resolution demanding the establishment of a facility to undertake educational research and development (ATA, 1972b:Appendix 4):

> 4.A.4 Be it resolved that The Alberta Teachers' Association advocate the establishment of a strong provincial educational research agency which is publicly financed, is independent of government and has a permanent advisory body composed of representatives of Alberta educational organizations.

Since the creation of the Branch, the ATA has continued to be its major interest group. Several studies that have been conducted have had their origin in the ATA. Besides, many individual members of the ATA have themselves been directly involved in Branch activities. Despite this degree of involvement, the ATA's position regarding the independence of the Branch has never changed. As was indicated in their resolution, the ATA stated that there was a need for a strong provincial educational research agency, publicly funded but independent of government control, with a permanent advisory body composed of representatives of Alberta educational organizations.

The second most powerful interest group in the Branch is the ASTA, the association representing school boards throughout the province. The duties of school boards are enshrined in Section 5 of the Alberta School Act and relate to both mandatory and discretionary powers. Mandatory duties include (Alberta Government, 1970):

1. appointment of superintendent of schools;
2. appointment of secretary and treasurer;
3. maintenance of school property;
4. holding of meetings to conduct business of district;
5. making rules for administration, management, and operation of schools; and
6. providing for settlement or adjudication of disputes in connection with school matters.

The discretionary powers include:

1. making rules governing the board's internal procedures;
2. purchasing instructional materials and supplies;
3. selling, renting, and distributing instructional materials and supplies to teachers and pupils; and
4. delegating any of its power to the superintendent of

schools or a committee appointed by it.

Thus, the interests of school boards in matters educational are unlimited. Therefore, both research and planning functions of the Branch are areas of interest to them. Like the ATA, the ASTA's interest aggregation starts with local boards and is transmitted to their provincial body for articulation. Since most school boards are elected, they represent an important layman's input into the educational system. Although they do not get directly involved in Branch activities, several studies that have been conducted were suggested by them; for example, vandalism, school day, school week, and school discipline studies, among others.

Another important interest group in the Branch is the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (CASS), an association of all Alberta school superintendents. Since 1970, the School Act (Alberta Government, 1970) has required that all superintendents be employed by school boards--rather than by the Department--to assist the boards with the organization and supervision of education within their respective jurisdictions. Further, the Act states that "a board may delegate any of its powers to the Superintendent of Schools . . ."(Alberta Government, 1970: Section 65/5). Thus, the Act virtually makes the superintendent the executive officer of a school board. This means that his interests as far as the functions of the Branch are concerned are similar to those of the ASTA. As the chief adviser to boards on educational matters, a superintendent has to be up-to-date in all professional matters and innovations meant to improve not only the quality of education, but also its delivery and administration.

Consequently, the superintendents must be fully conversant with Branch activities. This involvement has been maintained mainly in two ways: (1) through making demands to the Branch, often accomplished either individually or through the auspices of the conference; or (2) by making use of the information gained through research studies. In this connection, one interviewee expressed the opinion that bulky copies of research studies should be sent to libraries where those who want to consult them may go to do so. On the other hand, some administrators said they would prefer concise abstracts of research studies because they were often too busy to peruse such heavy documents.

Finally, interviews revealed that another group actively interested in the Branch was the university community, which, through its expertise, got involved in many research studies for the Branch.

Discussion

The four interest groups identified above comprised the most active groups within the Branch environment. Their interaction with the Branch was largely informal, since there were no formal structures, means, or procedures for maintaining the contact. The absence of these structures could partly account for the lack of involvement in the Branch activities, as expressed by one of the four groups. However, the nature of their inputs varied in scope, even within the same group. Generally, these inputs took the form of demands or suggestions embodied in research proposals submitted to the Branch. Perhaps their major input was the expertise that was made available to the Branch through participation in research projects.

Inputs in the form of proposals were normally subjected to scrutiny and careful selection by the Branch, and only those that met the Branch selection criteria received approval and funds for their conduct. In the case of inputs on policy development and analysis, these came to the Branch through other means as well--in the form of political issues articulated through various means by diverse sections of society. These issues became the raw materials upon which the officials of the Planning Section worked, and from which they produced policy recommendations and alternatives which were submitted to the minister for consideration.

Since most inputs were processed by the Branch itself, it may be of interest to explore the role played by various interest groups in the conversion processes.

Degree of citizen participation. The degree of citizen participation in the planning and research activities of the Branch has been very slight. As shown above, once a proposal secured approval and was declared suitable for research, an official of the Branch was usually detailed to liaise with researchers. However, there was often a need to have an advisory or steering committee to guide the research project, and when this became necessary, people were drawn from the general public, thus securing the involvement of citizens. Besides the advisory or steering committees, task forces were sometimes set up. Consequently, citizen involvement in Branch activities has been confined to membership in advisory or steering committees and task forces. The selection of these people has normally been the Branch's responsibility, though it could sometimes devolve upon major interest groups. Perhaps another way in which citizens got involved in the Branch activities was through reading and commenting on research findings of various studies.

Findings

Connections between educational and other planning. As indicated earlier, the Branch was specifically created as a service unit, to the Department of Education in particular, and to the education community in general. Since most Departmental activities are of an educational nature, there was little evidence of the Branch being involved in planning in other fields, though the need for such a practice was recognized by most of those interviewed. However, in the course of duty, economic and demographic, as well as social, factors have often been taken into consideration in the act of planning. For example, the Branch has conducted studies on such topics as budgeting, cost/benefit analysis, teacher housing, school buildings, and vandalism, which, though relevant to education, touched on other fields as well.

Ten of the people questioned on this issue felt that it was high time the Branch got more involved in planning in other fields. In particular they stated that the Branch should, without delay, investigate the role technology could and should play in the teaching/learning situation. The same people stated that the Branch should investigate ways and means of conserving energy.

Nature of planning practice. As the Branch is divided into two sections, it may be appreciated that each of them might employ different planning techniques. Generally, however, projects for research and planning were either externally or internally initiated. According to the Policy and Procedures Handbook (Alberta Government, 1975), externally initiated projects comprised those initiated by agencies, organizations, or individuals external to Alberta education. On the other hand, internally initiated projects were originated by any one, or a combination, of the following: (1) directors' council, (2) other branches of Alberta education, (3) the Research Section, or (4) the Policy Section of the Branch.

Externally Initiated Projects

In the case of externally initiated projects (Alberta Government, 1974), proposals spelling out: (1) a definition of the problem to be studied; (2) a statement of need for, and purpose of, the study; (3) expected outcomes of the study and their significance; and (4) sources of funding for the study, are normally submitted to the Branch for consideration.

When the proposal or memorandum of intent is received, the following approval machinery is set in motion:

1. The Branch reviews the proposal according to current thrusts and priorities. In this exercise, the following points may help in ascertaining the priority ranking of the project:
   (a) significance of the potential policy impact for target population,
   (b) currency and timeliness,
   (c) extent of stakeholders, and

(d) perceived importance of the minister or deputy minister and other senior officials.

2. The Branch decides either (a) to approve for consideration, (b) to reject by consensus with originators, or (c) to ask for information from the originator.
3. When a proposal warrants further consideration, an ad hoc committee may be formed, which decides whether (a) to approve for consideration, (b) to reject, or (c) to ask for more information.
4. If approved, a proposal is transmitted to the appropriate associate deputy who makes a recommendation to the deputy minister (if sponsored by a branch under his direction); if not, the recommendation goes directly to the deputy for approval.
5. If necessary, the deputy may forward the proposal to the minister for approval.
6. The deputy, or the minister, decides (a) to approve the proposal, (b) to reject it, or (c) to ask for more information.
7. Upon approval, the proposal is translated into a contract.

Figure 9 provides a summary of the steps through which the review of a proposal may go, beginning with the receipt of the proposal, and ending with either contract development or rejection.

When approval has been secured, a contract is negotiated. This may follow the sequence of events outlined in the official handbook, as follows: (1) on receipt of notification of proposal approval giving the

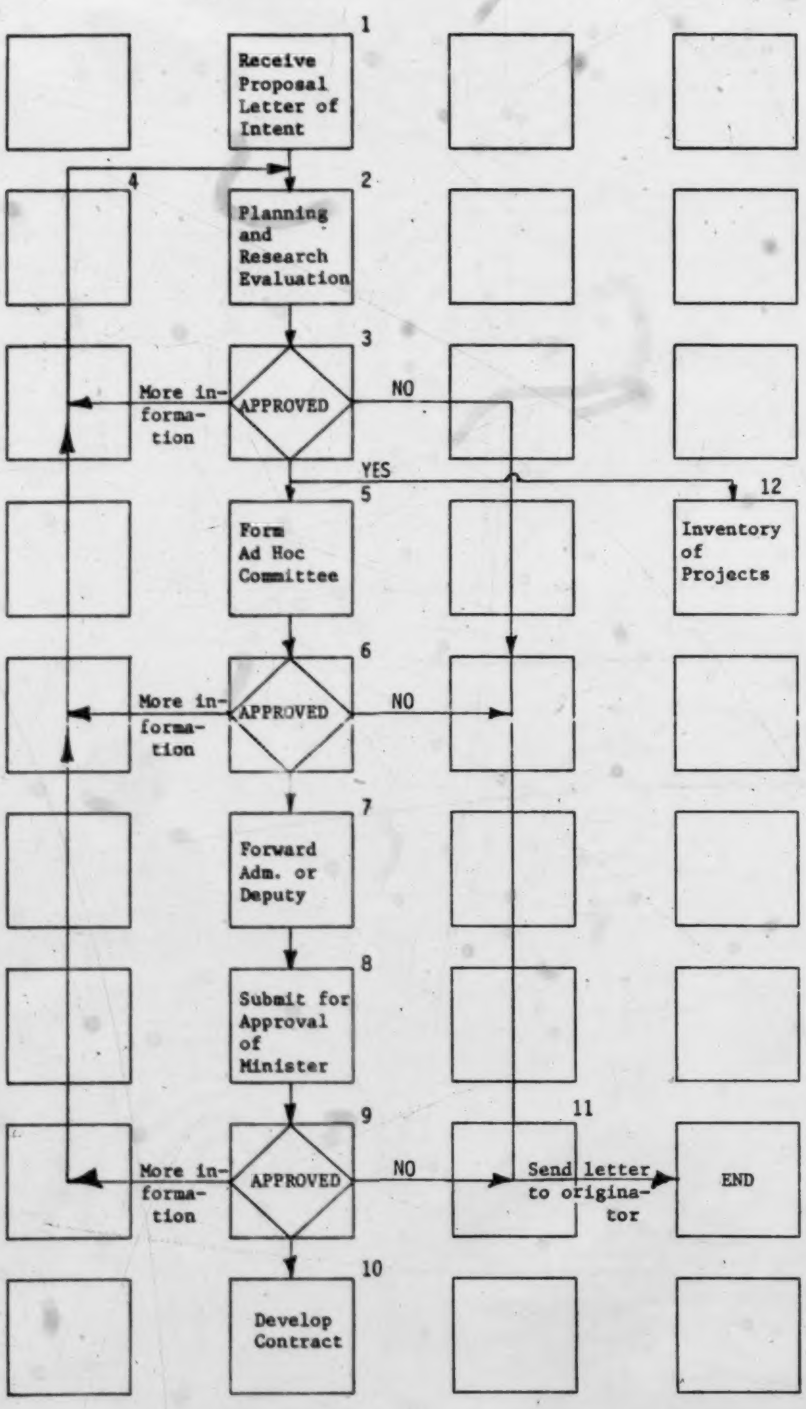

Figure 9

Sequence of Events for Review of a Proposal

[Source: Adapted from Alberta Government handbook, 1975.]

designation of researcher or contractor, (2) negotiation of contract commences, (3) a payment schedule and list of milestones is prepared, (4) a contract is drawn up in cooperation with the attorney general's department or on a form acceptable to it, (5) the contractor signs and returns all original copies, (5) the minister signs and returns all originals, and (7) a copy of the contract is kept in the Branch, to be available to the liaison official at all times.

Once the contract is fully negotiated, work on the project commences. During the life of the project, the liaison officer provides the researcher and the Branch with whatever information he considers essential for early completion of the project. The completion of the project is reached when: (a) a summary report is made; (b) final reports in the number specified are made available; (c) an accounting of expenditure is made; (d) reports are reviewed and presented to the minister, who decides whether or not to release the report for public information; and (3) necessary data are provided to the communications branch on released reports. Figure 10 summarizes the sequence of events, beginning with contract negotiations and proceeding on to the end of the project.

Internally Initiated Projects

As indicated earlier, internally initiated projects may come from (1) the directors' council, (2) other branches of Alberta education, (3) the Research Section, or (4) the Policy Section of the Branch. An initiative is normally deemed to have commenced when (1) a request signed by the originating officer has been prepared, and (2) the said request has been endorsed by the Branch director. As with externally

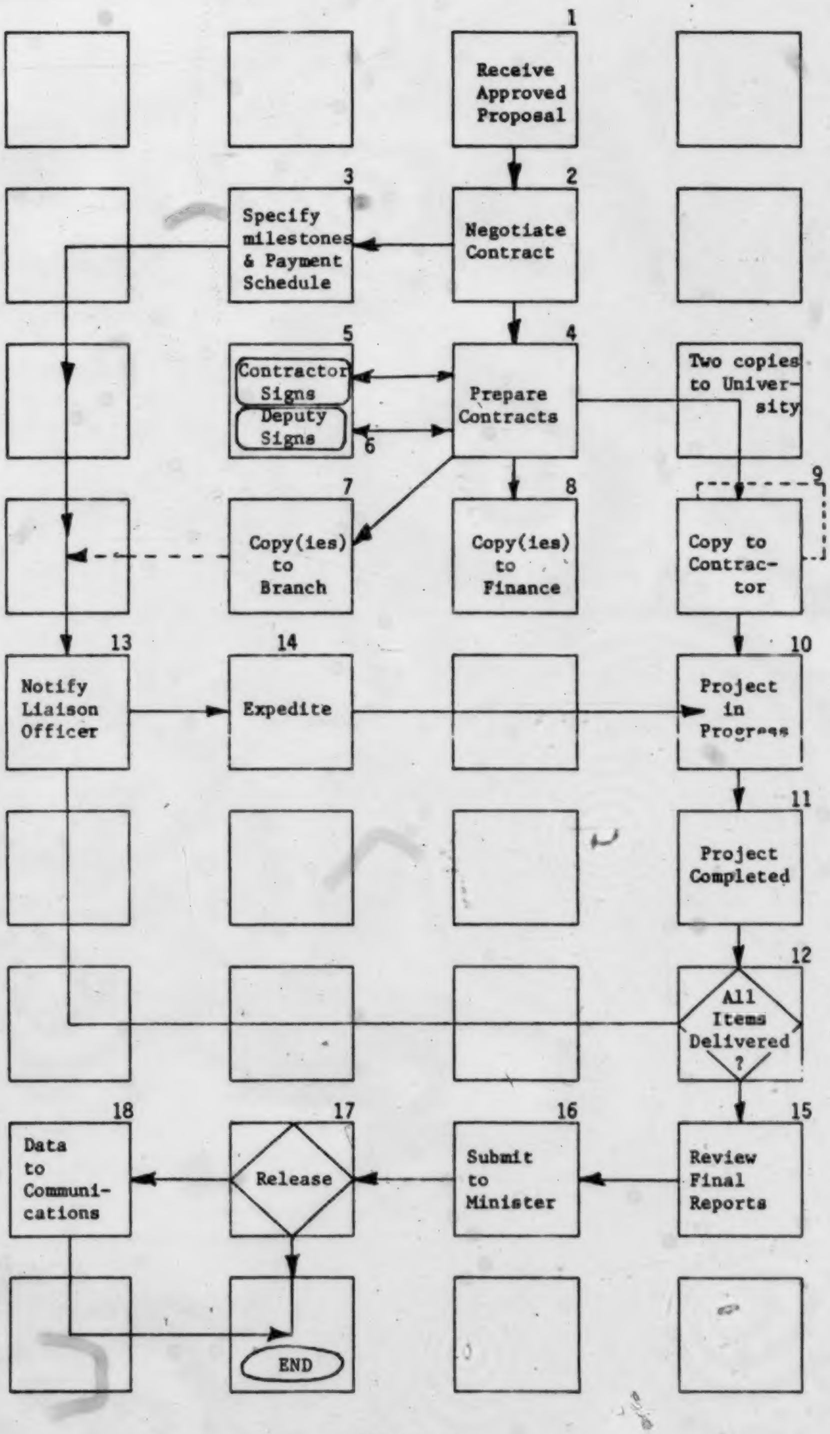

Figure 10

Sequence of Events of a Project from Commencement to Completion

[Source: Adapted from Alberta Government handbook, 1975.]

initiated proposals, such a request must include: (a) a definition of the problem to be studied; (b) a statement of the need for, and purpose of, the study; (c) expected outcomes of the study and their significance; and (d) sources of funding for the study.

Official commencement of internally initiated projects usually begins with exploration (referred to as the exploratory stage), the purpose of which is to outline preliminary needs assessments, to review literature, to identify relevant processes, products, and resources, and to conduct preliminary pedagogical and economic evaluations. The Branch director is responsible for allocating the required number of staff members to undertake the exploratory work.

At the conclusion of the exploratory stage, a written report is filed with the director, and with the initiating official or with the steering committee, as the case may be, and a priority ranking is assigned to the study/project. Also at this stage the initiating official prepares a research design which normally includes (according to the policy handbook)(Alberta Government, 19[illegible]5): (1) title of the project; (2) scope of the study, (3) terms of reference, (4) proposed period of study, (5) resources required for the study, and (6) recommendations for an internal or contracted study.

The completed research designs/proposals for internal studies are forwarded to the Branch director, whose responsibility is to obtain the necessary approval to proceed with the study. Once this approval is secured, Stage II, or the research phase, commences, and this may be subdivided into a number of phases, depending on the nature of the project. At the conclusion of Stage II, a report is made and submitted to the minister, who decides whether or not to release such a report for public consumption.

The Policy or Planning Section

Up to this point, the focus has been on the activities of the Research Section. The intent of the present description is to provide an outline of the manner in which the Policy Section handles its responsibilities.

The Policy Section does both planning and research and undertakes policy analysis, development, and/or revision, which may lead to problem definition requiring research. Should research become necessary, the section normally organizes, monitors, and documents and disseminates policy recommendations resulting from such research. However, it is the minister alone who has the responsibility for deciding to disseminate policy recommendations and policy alternatives.

The following outlines the manner in which the Policy Section functions:

1. It accepts requests for policy studies generated by various clients, which may include the Department, other branches, and other agencies or organizations.
2. It assesses needs and identifies Branch and Department policy issues which require further analysis, development, or revision to meet the needs assessed.
3. It defines the nature of the problem in each identified policy issue.
4. It designs and develops solution strategies for dealing with each defined problem, and, where needed, develops

methods for selecting the "best" alternatives.

5. It decides on the nature of the study--internal or contracted. If contracted, it invites proposals from interested researchers, who may be internal or external to Alberta education.
6. Once research is in progress, it monitors studies during their life cycle to ensure that the purposes of the study are being achieved.
7. It develops or revises policies on the basis of designed strategies and information obtained from studies.
8. It documents and disseminates the developed or revised policies.
9. It follows up on policies and recommendations as required.
10. It decides on a need for a formal study as a means of obtaining relevant policy information.
11. It conducts the study or studies.
12. Where the studies are conducted by the Branch itself, the Policy Section develops study reports for each of them.

Figure 11 summarizes the policy as well as the research aspects and responsibilities which the Policy Section discharges. On the one hand, the policy part or aspect begins with policy studies and ends up with a follow-up on policies as required; on the other hand, the research part begins with research proposals and ends up with a follow-up on studies as required.

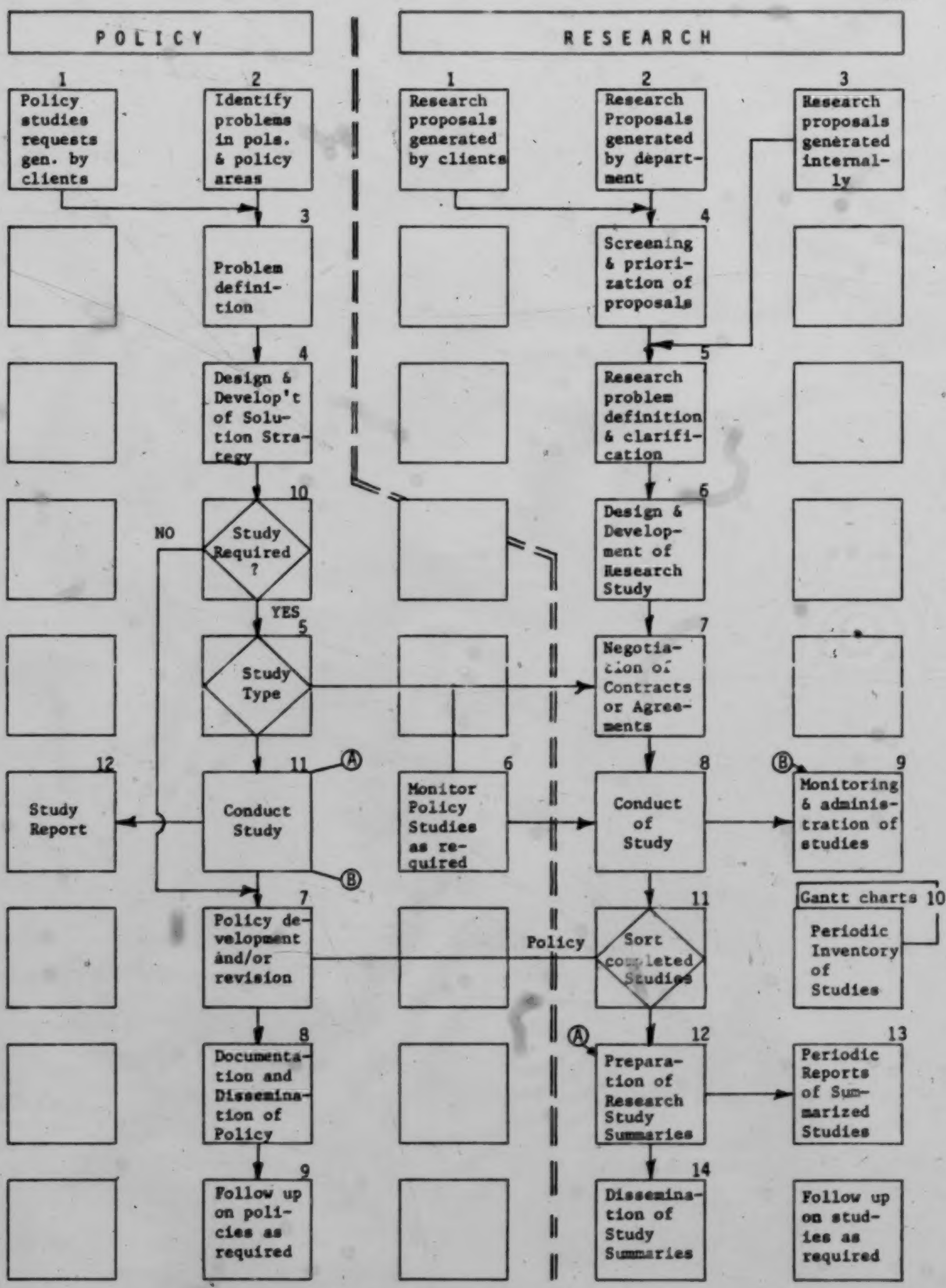
POLICY
RESEARCH
1
Policy studies requests gen. by clients
2
Identify problems in pols. & policy areas
3
Problem definition
4
Design & Develop't of Solution Strategy
10
Study Required ?
NO
YES
5
Study Type
11
Conduct Study
12
Study Report
7
Policy development and/or revision
8
Documentation and Dissemination of Policy
9
Follow up on policies as required
A
B
1
Research proposals generated by clients
6
Monitor Policy Studies as required
2
Research Proposals generated by department
4
Screening & priorization of proposals
5
Research problem definition & clarification
6
Design & Development of Research Study
7
Negotiation of Contracts or Agreements
8
Conduct of Study
11
Sort completed Studies
Policy
12
Preparation of Research Study Summaries
14
Dissemination of Study Summaries
3
Research proposals generated internally
9
Monitoring & administration of studies
Gantt charts 10
Periodic Inventory of Studies
13
Periodic Reports of Summarized Studies
Follow up on studies as required

Figure 11

Policy Section of the Planning and Research Branch

Discussion

As indicated on page 122, the functions of the Policy Section of the Branch were not often visible in the environment. In fact, they were perceived to be shrouded with ambiguity, inconsistency, and even narrowness. In other words, there was a degree of unpredictability associated with the outcomes of the endeavours of this section. While perhaps not deliberately designed, it seemed to serve the purpose pretty well, since it avoided prescriptions. For to resort to presciptions of solutions in a province with diverse interests, demands, and problems, would have been unrealistic. Further, it would have been politically unfeasible. As Dror (1968:34) put it, ". . . ambiguity, inconsistency, narrow scope, etc., are often helpful and sometimes essential in making a policy politically feasible." Dror further explained that political feasibility of a policy is, in effect, the probability that it will be sufficiently acceptable to the various secondary decision-makers, executors, interest groups, and publics, whose participation or even acquiescence is needed, that it can be translated into action. Thus, political feasibility depends on the power structure of all the systems involved, and also on the ability of the policy-makers themselves to recruit support. This may explain, in the case of the Branch, why the minister, who is in a powerful position, personally has to give approval before any research is done, or before any research findings embodying policy recommendations plus policy alternatives are made public.

The formulation of policies and plans within the Branch has been, therefore, both routinized and specialized. For example, all organizational procedures are routine, but the activities themselves are problem specific, that is, individual and specialized. The Branch specifies routine procedures both for submitting and dealing with proposals once they are received. However, when it comes to deciding which particular proposals are to be approved or not, the activity involved takes on a different dimension. It ceases to be routine, and becomes highly specialized. The nature and content of the proposals become crucial features toward which both comparison and decision-making may be directed, although political feasibility remains a feature to be reckoned with at all times. Nevertheless, because of the first two features, considerable discretion is permitted to be exercised by lower-level personnel perceived to have the required expertise for handling the problem. In addition, a good deal of interaction among Branch officials takes place all the time. In this kind of interaction, such things as experience and technical know-how play a prominent part, not only in decision-making, but also in the initial hiring of Branch personnel.

Generally, from what was observed, a fair degree of collegiality appeared to characterize the relationships among those working for the Branch. This was further reinforced by the fact that the size of the Branch was itself conducive to these individuals getting to know each other rather well. The situation obtaining in the Branch seemed to support Perrow's (1972:166) contention that in situations where "tasks are nonroutine . . . more discretion must be given to lower-level personnel; more interaction is required among personnel at the same level; there must be emphasis upon experience, 'feel,' or professionalization." Perrow's thesis also helps to explain why, over and above the consultation that was ongoing, members of each section appeared to work so much together. A considerable amount of time seemed to be spent on consultation, especially among those working in the same section of the Branch.

Besides these consultations, each officer has been expected to keep a record of his schedule of duties. An objective record of time spent on individual duties performed is kept by every officer. These times are aggregated monthly, showing the amounts of time spent per duty in a month. Figure 12 provides an example typical of such a record--a scheme of what this particular official planned to do. Column 1 shows the key responsibility areas, Column 2 indicates the goals, Column 3 lists the specific tasks, Column 4 sets the target dates, and Column 5 gives the estimated man days.

Figure 13 shows the amounts of time actually spent doing what was planned. Column 1 shows the key responsibility areas, Column 2 gives the results achieved, and Column 3 tabulates the amount of time spent.

Figure 14 shows a review of the work undertaken during a certain period, wherein Column 1 shows key responsibility areas, Column 2 lists the results achieved, and Column 3 gives comments.

CRITERION 3: TYPE OF PLANNING IN TERMS OF ITS DURATION (TIME) AND QUALITY

In Criterion 2, an examination of the contact between the Branch and its environment was made, wherein the focus was to describe and

Key Responsibility Areas			Goals		Specific Tasks	Target Date	Man Days
1.	Project Management	1.A.1	To improve aspects of project management.	I.A.1	Assist in reviewing and revising existing operational policies in Handbook and to develop new policies.	On-going	3
1.A	Planning (Needs Assessment)	1.A.2	To identify and operationalize projects in relation to priorities and financial restraints.	1.A.2	To deal with incoming proposals and to assist in putting suitable projects into place.	On-going	8
1.B	Design and Development	1.B.1	To assist in activities related to project design, planning, and development.	1.B.1	Assist clients with project design.	On-going	6
		1.B.2	To assist in meeting research needs.	1.B.2.1	Carry out communication and administration tasks.	On-going	4
				1.B.2.2	Assist in maintaining a balanced inventory of projects.	On-going	1
		1.B.3	To respond to priorities and needs of the Department.	1.B.3.1	Surveillance of trends that represent changing needs.	On-going	1

Figure 12

Management Plan

[Adapted from Alberta Government Policy Handbook, 1975]

Key Responsibility Areas		Results Achieved	Time
1. Project Management	1.A.1.1	Assisted in developing new policy statements relative to research, spending, honoraria, etc. Policy statement redrafted on final report specifications and dissemination of information.	5 hrs.
1.A Planning (Needs Assessment)	1.A.1.2	New procedures for record-keeping relative to project monitoring have been implemented (e.g. bring forward file).	8 hrs.
	1.A.1.3	The Gantt charts have been maintained. This, together with the B.F. file facilitates monitoring of progress of research projects.	

Figure 13

Assessment of Management Plan

[Adapted from Alberta Government Policy Handbook, 1975]

Key Responsibility Areas		Results Achieved	Comments
1. Project Management	1.A.1.1	Assisted in developing new policy statements relative to research, spending, honoraria, etc. Policy statement redrafted on final report specifications and dissemination of information.	Six policies were put into policy format and included in the Branch Policy Handbook.
1.A Planning (Needs Assessment)	1.A.1.2	New procedures for record-keeping relative to project monitoring have been implemented (e.g. bring forward file).	The pressures of responsibilities such as those associated with MACOSA and Education North have restricted the amount of time available for dealing with new proposals.
	1.A.1.3	The Gantt charts have been maintained. This, together with B.F. file facilitates monitoring of progress of research projects.	

Figure 14

Review of Work Done

[Adapted from Alberta Government Policy Handbook, 1975]

analyse the practices of the Branch without necessarily tying them to time or to qualitative aspects. The focus of Criterion 3 was an attempt to examine the type of planning practices in terms of their duration (time) and quality (quantitative as opposed to qualitative) aspects. In dealing with the time dimension, the categorization suggested by the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" was used. It should have short-range (one or two years), middle-range (four to five years), and long-range (ten to fifteen years) perspectives. Coombs (1970) lent support to these categorizations when he blamed many pitfalls experienced in various countries throughout the world on the placing of far greater emphasis on certain phases at the expense of others. Thus, in examining the time dimension, the three phases or categories named above were taken into consideration.

As regards the qualitative aspects, an attempt was made to determine the focus of planning. Specifically, it was necessary to determine whether planning was based on quantitative or qualitative considerations. Quantitative considerations would emphasize linear expansion of an educational system--a phenomenon most prevalent in developing countries and, to a lesser degree, in developed ones. Qualitative aspects or considerations tend to concentrate on the need to reshape existing processes including structures. Specifically, they may focus on the provision of effective means for developing quantitative and qualitative forecasts, the monitoring of current policies and practices, the analyses of the decision-making process, and a greater reliance upon research.

Findings

Time dimension. Time is, indeed, an important dimension for the planner, especially for the educational planner, since all people, to varying degrees, are affected by or have a stake in the outcomes of his endeavours. Some people may be interested in the immediate outcomes of planning, while others might be interested in the long-range ones. Somehow, a planner must meet all this mix of expectations.

In cognizance of this reality, the "Second Generation of Educational Planners" have suggested the tri-dimensional focus indicated above. Based on this formulation, it seemed the preoccupation of the Branch was largely centred on short-range planning motivated to a great extent by data-gathering. There was little evidence of either long-range, or research and developmental, activities. This orientation to short-range planning was criticized by the six critics who perceived the role of the Branch to include long-range planning. Such people stated that a balance ought to be maintained between the two aspects of planning and that preoccupation over one at the expense of the other necessarily led to unavoidable pitfalls.

Discussion

The six critics and, to a certain extent, the Branch, appeared to view planning basically as occupying two levels--short-range and long-range; there was little thought given to medium-range considerations. The problem appeared to be that of determining what constituted medium-range and long-range perspectives in planning. Two members of the Branch expressed the opinion that to plan for ten to fifteen years hence was virtually impossible in view of the dynamic political upheavals of the modern world. They asserted that such attempts amount to guesswork, and hence are a waste of time. Rather than engage in such futile exercises, a better case could be made for medium-range planning which, by interpretation, was regarded as being, in effect, long-range.

However, the literature surveyed recognized the existence of, as well as the need for, the three dimensions of planning. In the first place, each type is expected to, and does, meet a different set of problems. For example, some problems are immediate and require immediate solutions; short-range planning serves to provide solutions to this kind of problem. Some problems may not be as pressing, hence can safely be deferred, and these may be the object of medium-range planning. The decision to defer problems may depend on many factors, including lack of resources, both material and human. Long-range planning, however, tends to arise out of a desire or a need for societal reconstruction, which may involve a change of people's attitudes as well as expectations. Since it takes a long time to change people's attitudes, it inevitably takes a long time to achieve the fruits of such planning. Thus, all three types of planning have a purpose to serve.

Qualitative dimension. This dimension seemed to determine whether the planning practices described in Criterion 2 were based on quantitative or qualitative considerations. Although little evidence existed to show a tendency or a trend toward linear expansion per se, in terms of increasing the awareness and effectiveness of teachers as well as administrators, a certain amount of expansion was taking place. To achieve this end, research was not only used, but was considered a most valuable way of gaining knowledge that would lead to the increased efficiency of the school system. For examples, studies on cost effectiveness of alternative means for achieving certain objectives, and more effective linking of budgets to programs through planned/program/budgeting systems (to mention but a few) provide examples of the efforts that might be described as having the intent toward some kind of expansion.

Discussion

Generally, however, no linear expansion was evident. Most of the practices of the Branch aimed at improving the quality and assessment of educational programs, including the quality of their delivery to the pupil-consumers in classroom teaching/learning situations. For example, studies under the minister's advisory committee on student achievement (MACOSA) were specifically oriented toward the assessment of student achievement. To enhance this objective, priority was given to proposals that were expected to result in further information on student achievement.

Thus, all in all, the practices may be characterized as a preparation of strategic decisions for policy-makers, administrators, and teachers, rather than the preparation of global plans. In this connection, reasearch was valued as a means for both identifying and refining these strategies.

CRITERION 4: SCOPE OF BRANCH ACTIVITIES

In Criterion 3, the nature of the Branch's planning practices was analysed in terms of their duration and quality.

In Criterion 4, however, an analysis of the scope of the planning practices was attempted. Specifically, the following variables were treated: (1) the domain of the activities; (2) their dissemination; (3) their implementation; and (4) feedback. In analysing the domain of activities, Moses' (1971:1) categorization of the activities of an educational system provided a guide. Moses divided such activities into two categories--core and periphery. The core activities embrace school activities from kindergarten through graduate and professional schools, while periphery activities include all those organized by governmental as well as private organizations. As indicated in Chapter 3, a delimitation was imposed on both categories in order to exclude those undertaken outside the kindergarten-through-Grade 12 levels of the school system. Thus, the following further breakdown was made: (1) core and periphery, (2) regional coverage, and (3) organizational levels affected. Each of these is discussed below.

Findings

Core and periphery. Although most Branch practices were oriented toward the core program, periphery activities were not ignored; indeed, they received substantial attention. As far as the core program was concerned, the thrust was at evaluating and revising programs; determining students' achievement levels in order to establish bench marks in areas of basic skills at various classroom levels; and developing teacher behaviours deemed to be important for success in reading and language arts. The purpose of such studies was to establish mastery levels with performance and rate as the criteria.

Discussion

As shown above, periphery activities also received attention. For example, a number of studies were specifically organized to provide work experience and special education for students who had either dropped out or been expelled from school. Such programs were organized as alternative type schools.

Worth (1972) was particularly concerned about the importance of periphery activities to a student's learning. He felt that since these activities constituted such an important part of a student's learning there was a need not only to coordinate them, but also to control them in order to prevent their becoming fragmented and of such poor quality that they might militate against real learning. Worth thought a way out would be to pull as much of the periphery activities as possible into the core. Emphasizing this need, Worth (1972:153) wrote:

> . . . the learner's curriculum extends far beyond the bounds of institutions out into the home, the community, the street, and the highway. Its effects determine an individual's life-style. Only part of this curriculum can be planned; the rest must be viewed as a cultural probability.

Worth's position in both matters was shared by the Branch, although the core program appeared to receive more attention.

Findings

Regional coverage. Branch activities were not confined to certain areas at the expense of others; on the contrary, studies were carefully selected and aimed at the whole province, particularly insofar as internally initiated studies were concerned. As regards externally initiated studies, again, no one area appeared to receive more consideration than did another. Proposals were entertained from the whole province, although some were accorded more consideration. This was done mainly in connection with the nature and quality of the proposal.

Discussion

The need and importance of covering the whole province was emphasized in both the 1974 discussion paper as well as the 1975 handbook. Worth (1972) also felt the need to reduce the parity between city and non-city educational opportunities, contending that such parity is crucial in upgrading the quality of rural life. Speaking of equity in schooling, Worth (1972:76) stated that:

> . . . [the] means of achieving greater equity in schooling for rural Albertans is through the establishment of regional learning centres to serve those areas that would not be serviced by a central city . . . .

Although the establishment of these centres has not as yet materialized, the Branch has made attempts at developing relevant curricula for providing meaningful learning experiences for non-city students. A good example of such attempts is the "Education North" study which aims at designing a community involvement model for developing a relevant curriculum and for providing meaningful learning experiences for students in selected northern communities.

Another study that seems to address itself to the same problem is on "Environmental Education"; its purpose is to establish a statement of suggested goals for environmental education in the province and to compare the relative importance attached to the goals by environmental education leaders, teachers, parents, and students.

Several other studies focus on the problems of parity between city and non-city educational opportunities; for example, in educational administration, the "Inter-Agency Task Force-Superintendency" study by Ingram and Miklos (Alberta Government, 1977c) developed a set of guidelines for the role and functions of school superintendents throughout the province.

Thus, the activities of the Branch had a regional focus. In the next section, how the activities affected the hierarchy of educational organizations throughout the province is discussed.

Organizational levels. Analysis of this variable was concerned with the manner in which the Branch activities affected the different levels of education province wide. Parsons (1960:60-65) has identified three levels in the hierarchical structure of organization:

1. The technical level, which has to do with processes that organizations use for processing their inputs. In educational organizations, these have to do with actual teaching processes.

Thus, at this level, the analysis was concerned with those aspects by which the Branch influences the teaching processes in the province.

2. The managerial level, normally referred to as the "administration." This level has to do with the manner in which

an organization is managed. In the case of educational organizations, this level may be comprised of the Department of Education and all provincial superintendents of schools.

Hence, in analysing Branch influence in the activities of both the Department and superintendents of schools, particular attention was paid to the kinds of outputs from the Branch that helped the two organizations discharge their respective responsibilities more effectively.

3. The institional level is one which Parsons referred to as some "organized superior agency" with which the managerial system articulates. He said a formal organization is a mechanism by which goals somehow important to society are implemented and defined. Thus, not only does such an organization have to operate in a social environment which imposes the conditions governing the processes of disposal and procurement, it also forms part of a wider social system which is the source of the "meaning," legitimation, or higher-level support which makes the implementation of the organization's goals possible. Just as a technical organization is controlled and "serviced" by a managerial organization, so, in turn, is the latter controlled by the "institutional" structure and community agencies.

In the education field, this third level of organization may be comprised of school boards, with their respective functions in the community. Thus, in analysing the influence of the Branch on the activities of school boards, particular attention was paid to the kinds of outputs accruing from the Branch that enabled school boards to peform their duties or functions effectively. Each of the three levels is discussed below.

Findings

Technical Level

As shown above, the technical level had to do with actual teaching processes. It is virtually impossible to talk of this process without somehow involving teachers who carry out the activity in schools. As per Criterion 3, the ATA has been very active in Branch activities. Several studies conducted by the ATA as a whole, and its individual members have also provided input.

Discussion

The outputs from the Branch have, in one way or another, affected the delivery of education services in the classroom. Since this was a descriptive rather than an evaluative study, no value judgements were made in connection with the effectiveness of the Branch. However, the Branch influence manifested itself in three ways. In the first place, through the evaluation of programs, new ideas have been made available to teachers. Secondly, through the assessment of students' achievements in various subjects, the teaching force has been shown its strong, as well as its weak, points. Through these assessments, bench marks for comparative purposes have been made possible. Thus, the various school jurisdictions around the province can compare themselves with others. Although these bench marks cannot be regarded as revelations of reality, their usefulness to the technical level cannot be discounted. Thirdly, specific attempts have been made for developing teacher behaviours deemed essential for success in reading and language arts. The purpose of these attempts has been to establish mastery levels of responses with performance and rate as the criteria.

The above indicate a fair degree of involvement which the Branch has had at the technical level of the school system throughout the province. As pointed out on page 138, teachers, while indeed appreciative of these efforts, consider that the Branch would do a better job if it were independent of government control.

Findings

Managerial Level

This level is comprised of the Department and the CASS around the province. The analysis of the influence of the Branch on the activities of these bodies was organized around the outputs and the inputs of the Branch. On the inputs side, the Branch receives both demands and supports from both organizations. Various members of the Department, and of CASS, have been very active in initiating projects for study.

Discussion

The findings of these various studies have provided the decision-makers, both at the Department and throughout school districts, with information which they might otherwise have lacked. In this sense, the Branch has not failed in performing the duties befitting a service unit. Specific outputs of the Branch have been directed at the CASS. Good examples of these outputs have been studies covering superintendency, school discipline, school buildings, and vandalism.

Findings

Institutional Level

This level is comprised of school boards in various school districts around the province. Like the managerial level, the analysis centred around the inputs and outputs of the Branch. On the inputs side, school boards have been active in articulating demands to the Branch. For example, many of the studies conducted had their origin in school boards--either individually or as a collectivity under the auspices of the ASTA. As employers of the technical as well as the managerial systems, they have been interested in the outputs accruing from the Branch, with their chief interest lying in the effective functioning of the system. To ensure this, they have advocated that the technical level (as well as the managerial level) be equipped with knowledge, skills, and attitudes conducive to effective functioning.

Discussion

Generally, such studies (outputs) as the school day/school year, school discipline, vandalism, and price index have in one way or another influenced decision-making as well as policy-making among school boards throughout the province.

Since school boards represent the interests of the ordinary citizen--the taxpayer--their demands for greater involvement in Branch activities have always been respected, though not always enlisted.

School boards demand more positive involvement than mere service on advisory/steering committees or task forces in which problems have been identified by some external agency. School boards feel that since they are constantly in contact with problems, their increased involvement or participation would greatly enhance problem-solving in the province. This, in turn, would make the Branch much more effective in the eyes of the general public.

Dissemination. Under this section, procedures for the dissemination of research findings were analysed. Following is a brief description of Branch outputs, as it would be unrealistic to describe dissemination practices without knowing the nature of the products disseminated.

Findings

Nature of the outputs. Branch outputs are so diverse it was virtually impossible to describe all of them; nevertheless, they can be classified under two major categories: (1) information, and (2) policy alternatives or policy recommendations.

All Branch efforts aimed at finding answers or solutions to perceived problems, often ending up with lists of findings. Although the lists varied according to the nature of the topics studied, all can be generalized as information. Some of this information recommended new ways of doing things, others merely confirmed current practices, while still others contained elements of both categories.

Thus, irrespective of the nature of the information discovered, it was clear that various publics, including province-wide policy-makers at different levels of the school system, would be interested in such information.

Dissemination policy. In compliance with government policy that the citizens of the province have the right to know of and about their government, and that their government has a duty to inform the public of its policies, in plans, and actions, the Branch has given the widest possible dissemination to research studies subject to a classification assigned to proposals at the approval stage. For example, a proposal could be assigned any one of the following classifications, depending on its nature and quality (Alberta Government, 1975:B.6.3):

> "For Release," if for public dissemination
> "For Discussion," if for controlled dissemination
> "For Internal Use Only," if restricted for exclusive use by the government.

Procedures for classification. The director of the Branch, in consultation with the line directors of affected branch(es) recommends the classification to the deputy minister and the minister when a research proposal is approved. In addition, a dissemination officer is designated for each study to provide a liaison to other officers for dissemination. When the final report is available, an information package, consisting of: (1) the report; (2) an executive briefing or summary of the major findings, including reactions, implications and timeliness for proposed government action; (3) a draft news release; and (4) a release and dissemination proposal, is forwarded to the minister for approval. Once approval is secured, print procurement is arranged through the communications branch. Quantities are determined in consultation among the Branch, communications, and line branches, if any.

Guidelines for dissemination. Depending upon the classification of a report, sufficient copies may be produced to accommodate at least the specified distribution, where such a distribution exists. In the event that school systems and/or the public have been involved in providing facts or opinions for a study, the final report, earmarked "For Release," may be distributed to: (1) government officials and members of the legislature; (2) educational agencies and organizations; and (3) research libraries and depositories.

In cases where draft studies are classified "For Discussion," or "For Internal Use Only," copies are provided to members of the directors' council on request, or on what is termed a "need to know" basis. It is important to note that final studies so classified are normally provided to the minister and members of the directors' council, and may, at times, receive additional circulation on a specified "need to know" basis.

The above guidelines apply in the case of research studies. However, the policy section often revises or develops policies which it disseminates after they have been adopted. Once the dissemination of a policy is authorized, the said policy or procedure is produced by the Branch in the form of a revision sheet and issued to all manual holders. Policies and procedures manuals are normally issued to: (1) all responsible centre heads within Alberta education; (2) directors' council members not already included under item (1) above; and (3) all professional and support staff members of the Branch.

Policies and procedures manuals may be distributed from time to time at the request of the director, to agencies, organizations, or individuals other than those specified above. For example, research agencies in other provincial departments of education often receive these manuals and policies, although their names are not normally placed on the distribution list.

Implementation of outputs. As a general rule, the Branch did not get directly involved in the implementation of its outputs. This was left to various agencies and/or jurisdictions. The Branch has been content with leaving facts to speak for themselves. However, where jurisdictions specifically asked for Branch personnel to provide assistance in implementing certain study recommendations, the Branch has often willingly supplied such assistance.

Discussion

The orientation which the Branch has taken in connection with the implementation of their outputs was best described by the Chin and Benne (1976) empirical-rational strategies. According to this set of strategies, man is assumed to be rational and will follow his rational self-interest once revealed to him. So all that the Branch has done is to make knowledge available to various publics; those interested adopt and use it in service of their rational interests. The Branch does not employ the power-coercive strategies that force various jurisdictions to adopt and/or implement its outputs.

However, when the different jurisdictions receive the outputs, they select and implement those likely to meet their perceived needs. From the evidence obtained, several jurisdictions appeared to employ the Chin and Benne normative-reeducative strategy. As shown in Chapter 3, this strategy makes the assumption that man is inherently active, in quest of impulse, and needs satisfaction. Thus, the approach recognized the need for individuals to participate in their own reeducation, if they have to be reeducated at all. Here, the emphasis is clearly placed upon providing the user with problem-solving skills and bringing about the needed change in attitudes, values, and behaviour. In using this strategy, various jurisdictions have organized workshops, seminars, and meetings, to discuss how research findings may be implemented, and to encourage participation of their membership at all levels so as to provide them with skills, which may hopefully lead to value, as well as attitudinal, changes.

Implementation, though of vital importance, has to be accompanied by feedback, for it is through the feedback mechanisms that strengths and weaknesses of both the product and the processes employed may be assessed.

Findings

Feedback. Feedback consists of evaluative information about system action or its results. Sources of feedback may be from within or outside the system. Since the Branch did not normally get involved in the implementation of its outputs, it had no direct access to feedback information originating from different jurisdictions. The situation was made even worse by the fact that there were no means within the Branch for monitoring such information from the environment which comprises both users and consumers of its products.

However, as far as internal operations were concerned, there was adequate and systematic passage of information from one officer to another, and also from section to section. In this way, officers were kept constantly informed of developments taking place within the Branch. The size of the Branch also ensured that problems due to human relations were minimized. Besides, daily records of hours spent on activities also indicated the importance and relative difficulty of activities performed. Since this record has been available to all officers, every official was further informed by what was accomplished. Thus, these records provided feedback information to Branch officials and the internal functioning of the Branch was maintained.

Discussion

Although the Branch has not been involved in the implementation of its outputs, this may not necessarily absolve it from encouraging feedback within itself. Feedback is not random or disorderly; rather, it is purposive and evaluative about the system or something the system does. In this sense, even though it is after the fact, it is also something the system can use or capitalize on in order to increase its function and contributing potential. Pilecki and Immegart (1973:57) emphasized the importance of feedback when they said:

> It is . . . essential that social systems not only devise efficient means of receiving, handling, and using evaluative information but also that constant attention be given to the need for feedback and the kinds of evaluative information that

are most helpful or beneficial to the system.

Feedback may either be positive or negative--it either reinforces or opposes--and both types are essential to the functioning of an open system, especially. Positive feedback serves to point to system "strengths" and areas where maximal functionality and relevance has been achieved, thus contributing directly to system efficiency. On the other hand, negative feedback, by opposing system action or direction, stimulates or justifies system modifications, adaptations, and change. Miller (1959:244) emphasized the importance of negative feedback when he said: "When a system's negative feedback discontinues, its steady state vanishes, and at the same time, its boundary disappears and the system terminates." Thus, the importance of both negative and positive feedback cannot be over emphasized. Perhaps one of the ways the Branch could encourage feedback would be through creation of structures for not only receiving and handling it, but also for using it.

CRITERION 5: CONNECTION OF PLANNING FUNCTION WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONAL PROCESSES

The first four criteria were concerned with the analyses of (1) orientation of Branch planning practices; (2) contact between the Branch and its environment; (3) nature of planning practices; and (4) the scope of Branch activities.

In Criterion 5, however, the thrust of the analysis was to identify the relationships between planning and other administrative processes. Specifically, this entailed an examination of how the

Branch related to administrative units within the Department. For example, whether planning was considered a separate process in the administration of educational services or part and parcel of the administrative milieu, was probed. If it were part and parcel of the administrative milieu, how was it operationalized? To explore this issue and similar ones, three variables were examined: (1) the connection between planning and organization processes; (2) the authority of planners; and (3) the impact of the Branch on organization and administration of education in the province.

Findings

Connection between planning and other organizational processes.

As indicated in previous sections, the Branch was established to do both research and planning. The discussion paper, as well as the official handbook, emphasized the role of the Branch as being central to decision-making as opposed to being isolated from it. It was argued that by making planning part of the decision-making process, the Branch would continue to be a necessary part of the Department. If it were to be separate, it may have little or no influence on the other administrative or decision-making processes. Besides, the difficulty inherent in drawing a line of demarcation between planning and other organizational processes was recognized. Thus, it was felt that planning is best conceptualized as an aspect of the decision-making process within the Department. In cognizance of this fact, the Branch (Alberta Government, 1974:11) had to:

1. exercise an integrating function in the Department;

2. be closely linked to the policy and administration dimensions of decision-making, thus preventing the Branch from becoming "academically-oriented"; and
3. penetrate and be part of the ongoing decision system.

A significant part of its work would be articulated through the directors' council, where virtually all policy issues are processed, since the directors' council is the major integrating mechanism in the Department.

Discussion

Interviews with Branch officials confirmed that the Branch was not an "island unto itself." On the contrary, it formed part and parcel of the Department, providing service to all sections and, at the same time, initiating some tasks. Planning and research were viewed by the Department as providing vital information for decision-making to all sections of the Department.

The literature appeared to support the need to make planning an integral part of organizational processes, although the opinions expressed varied. For example, OECD had originally advocated a clear distinction between the functions of educational planning and decision-making. Later, it was found that the same organization had shifted its position, contending that planning should be considered one of the decision-making processes. OECD proposed (1970b:18) that it would not only be more meaningful, but also be much more practical to:

> . . . no longer look upon educational planning as an activity being separated from political decision-making, because this can easily lead up to a relationship in which the decision-makers are taking decisions whilst the planners are elaborating their plans that have little or no impact on changes in the society that they are "planning."

The above concept clearly views planning, administration, and policy-making as being the cardinal dimensions of the decision-making process. Elaborating on these dimensions, OECD (1970a:19-20) stated:

> . . . planning develops innovative decisions and decision programs, policy guarantees the acceptance of decisions, and administration makes routine decisions corresponding to relatively fixed programs.

Worth (1972:218) also argued in favour of relating planning to certain phases of the decision-making process:

> . . . planning [should] be closely related to the following phases of the decision process: identifying, defining and refining objectives, devising alternative programs for achieving the selected objectives; evaluating alternatives; monitoring the operation of programs that have been implemented, and developing new directives or programs in the light of previous experience and emerging conditions.

He further suggested that a planning unit within a department would be advantageous, since it would have the capacity to elicit information, synthesize it, translate it into alternate courses of action, test the consequences, and provide the necessary feedback to relevant sections of a department needing the information.

That there may exist certain disagreements in respect to the dimensions mentioned above is not surprising, since the issue really lies with interpretation. However, it can be argued that a linkage of the three dimensions might lead to some definitions, structures, and practices which could enhance the probability that planning undertaken within a system might make a difference in the future of that system.

Those articulating the view that the Branch and its activities should not form an integral part of the decision process felt that by putting professional planners at the mercy of decision-makers, their innovativeness and creativity would be curbed, because their major concern would be placed on political feasibility. Although opinions varied, generally the need to link planning with other organizational processes was supported by most of the people interviewed and by the literature surveyed. The practices of the Branch also revealed that planning was not isolated from other organizational processes. On the contrary, the Branch, since its inception, has always been closely linked with administrative dimensions of decision-making. As indicated in the policy handbook (Alberta Government, 1974:A3.1), ". . . the planning unit should occupy a central role in the decision-making processes of the Department."

Findings

Authority of planners. As pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, the power and authority of the Branch, and therefore of those professionals who worked in it, derived from four sources: the minister; the deputy minister; the directors' council; and the appropriate director, in cases where another branch utilized the consultative and/or research services of the Branch. Further, the staff, being members of the public service, have been expected to conduct their personal affairs in such a way that public interest is not compromised. They, like all other employees of the Department, have been expected to provide impartial advice to the government of the day.

As planners, however, they have had other sources of power as well. For example, their positions, their expertise, their accessibility to prevailing power structures or centres, their possession of information, the possibility of coalition formation both inside and outside the government in general and the Department in particular, all served to provide them with power. However, the organization of the Department is such that those sources of power have not been used against the government, or have at least been minimized. For example, all research proposals submitted to the Branch have to be approved by the minister. Further, all research findings, before they get published, have to be carefully scrutinized to ensure that they represent the kind of information the government wants the people to know, and they have to be approved by the minister. Besides, the responsibility to publish research findings also lies outside the Branch. All these are important weapons the government has used for reducing the power of planners. Benveniste (1972:115) has pointed out that planning is selective about publicity and that before any plan is published, certain factors must first be carefully considered:

> [Whole] or portions of the plan may be kept partially secret. Since it depends on negotiations, excessive publicity can be damaging, since . . . there are strategies for disclosing the plan when political consensus emerges.

Thus, guidelines such as those cited above were calculated to ensure that the power of the Branch and that of planners is minimized and that the Branch remains an integral part of the Department. They also ensure that Branch activities are focussed at enhancing decision-making processes in the Department and in other jurisdictions around the province.

Further, it is important to recognize that what may be overt knowledge to planners and to some other actors, could still be covert knowledge to others. Both within and outside the Department, access to decisions and knowledge can be kept selective so that a course of action can be kept confidential while public opinion is not yet ready for it, as long as those who are privy to the knowledge are convinced that it is the only possible way to deal with it. This partly explains why certain reports or research findings have not been published, in spite of the fact that researchers, whether internal or external, and the Branch itself, may have been convinced of the efficacy of the course(s) of action(s) outlined in the report.

Discussion

While the Branch must ensure its own existence, it dares not work against the interests of the Department. Further, any individual professionals inside the Branch, though extremely knowledgeable, are not expected to use their expertise for self-aggrandizement, but must serve the interests of the Branch. Thus, authority derived from expertise, position, and performance of duty, is exercised only in subordination to the interests of the Department in general and to those of the Branch in particular. In this way, power and authority really belong to the Department and to the Branch--not to individual planners in the Branch.

Findings

Impact of branch on organizations and administration of education. Although many criticisms were advanced by interviewees against the manner in which the Branch conducted its business, its impact on the administration and on the delivery of education service was not doubted; indeed, it was highly valued. The role of developmental research and planning in educational advancement was recognized to be vitally important. Although attitudes toward planning were mixed, it was generally accepted as making an important contribution to education. The need to improve current practices, and the ever-nagging problem of scarcity of resources, plus the need to make education efficient and more effective, all seemed to give credence to educational planning. To this end, various jurisdictions around the province seemed committed to educational planning. For example, some had, or were in the process of creating, special structures to undertake the function of educational planning. Although it would be unrealistic to give credit to the Branch for this development, its impact cannot be doubted. One critic admitted that it was a wise move to create the Branch as it has made available important information to those needing it, and helped them to appreciate the value of planning.

Discussion

There had been moves to promote educational planning in the province even before the creation of the Branch. Among the most prominent proponents of such a move was Worth, who had strongly argued that educational planning should become part of the overall preoccupation of the educational system. Worth (1972:234) felt that ordinary people, including students, ought to be involved in planning education:

> Planning should take place throughout the educational system and should go on continuously using appropriate strategies. The complexity of planning and its close relationship to the decision process dictates that the activity cannot be restricted to specialized units.

Although the creation of the Branch did enhance educational planning, the need for it had been realized long before, as exemplified by the creation of the now defunct Alberta Human Resources and Research Council and the demands that were expressed in its favour by educators as well as the laity.

In the ensuing section, a few tentative remarks, drawn directly from the analyses just presented, and considered crucial to understanding the practices of the Branch, are given. Since the present study was a descriptive endeavour, it is conceded that more definitive remarks must await future studies. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the following points may help to sharpen the analyses just concluded.

TENTATIVE REMARKS

As indicated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of the planning practices of the Branch, and that such an understanding might contribute to further development of a theory of planning. Although the remarks that follow may not necessarily contribute to such a theory, nevertheless they are made in the light of the analyses just presented. It is hoped these remarks may indicate, if only tentatively, some theoretical consideration or framework that this researcher considered would best provide an understanding of the practices of the Branch. Before doing so, however, major trends that appeared to characterize Branch practices are summarized.

The Branch philosophy emphasized the conceptual and operational integration of policy development and developmental research. The belief that emerged was that, together with information, coordination, and management of supporting systems, policy development and research constitute the primary components of an effective planning system. To operationalize this philosophy, three guiding policies were identified: (1) a policy which views education as an instrument of social change; (2) a policy directed toward qualitative improvement of education; and (3) a policy which emphasizes increased efficiency in the operation of all levels of the educational system. These were among the five policies explicated in Chapter 3. However, in order to implement them, three program thrusts were identified: (1) programs internal to the Department (e.g. cataloguing of existing policies); (2) programs (research studies, etc.) initiated or supervised by the Department directly; and (3) programs of grants-in-aid to institutions, organizations, and individuals.

In the Branch's attempts to implement the above programs, a short-range perspective for dealing with issues and/or problems appeared to permeate Branch activities. Consequently, less and less attention appeared to be paid to medium-range and long-range problems, since these did not constitute an immediate threat to the Branch. This kind of orientation had the effect of making the Branch visible, especially to its major interest groups. This visibility generated both support as well as criticisms from the environment. Support was evidenced in that the Branch appeared to deal promptly with problems, thereby reducing uncertainty in the environment. However, its critics viewed such approaches as being motivated by problemistic search and, therefore, somewhat devoid of imaginative planning, which was perceived to be stimulated by curiosity and motivated by a desire to gain understanding.

Besides the short-range orientation to task, the Branch also appeared to be particularly fascinated by contract/research activities. Since the outputs for such research originated both internally and externally, conflicts as to their appropriateness or otherwise were encountered. Thus, a need arose to routinize selection procedures of various inputs received. Although contract/research is very important in that it makes knowledge, skills, and vital information available to decision-makers, it tends to be a once-through kind of activity. In this way, the Branch was perceived to be engaged in intermittent and somewhat sporadic activities, which were apparently uncoordinated. Consequently, unless an attempt is somehow made to coordinate and synthesize the various findings, the usefulness of contract/research could easily be adversely affected. While inventories of studies serve a useful purpose, there is a need, where possible, to synthesize various findings in order to determine whether or not a trend is emerging. Such trends might be helpful in developing theories of practice. Besides, they would also emphasize the notion that planning is a continuous process. Miklos and Bourgette (1972:145-146) have warned of the need for planning to be a continuous, dynamic process within a system:

> . . . it is all too easy to be misled by the usual organizational provisions for planning--creation of specific plans, use of ad hoc planning committees, and so forth--into believing that planning can be intermittent and sporadic.

Beer (1969:398) also emphasized this point when he said:

> . . . planning is a continuous process, directed towards the adaptation of contemporary decisions about the future to the continuously

present state of knowledge.

Although Beer's comments were directed mainly at corporate planning, the general idea applies to educational planning as well. This idea has been expressed in terms of a concept of "rolling planning," that is, the recognition that plans must be subjected to continuous, or at least periodic, revision.

In addition to fascination with contract/research, participation--though generally recognized in official documents--did not appear to be encouraged much in practice. Citizen participation was, for the most part, limited to service on advisory and steering committees, and task forces. At times, the selection of people to serve on these committees was not left with the people themselves; the Branch chose them. One official said it was vital that people with a recognized standing in the community, besides expertise, be selected to serve on these committees.

The six critics of the Branch felt that people affected by outcomes ought to be given as much opportunity as possible to participate in activities leading to such outcomes. Although the need was generally recognized, the difficulty seemed to lie in determining who was to participate. As indicated earlier, Worth, while recognizing such a need, felt that not all people could meaningfully participate in a function such as planning, and that some people have to be prepared before they can actually participate.

However, it seems the question of participation could partly be settled by creating structures on which various interest groups could be represented. As a matter of fact, before the Branch was created, it had been suggested that an advisory research council be initiated, but it never materialized. The absence of such a structure not only makes it difficult for ordinary citizens to participate in Branch activities, but it also confers upon the Branch a "warrant" to choose those whose involvement it perceives will enhance its activities.

Generally speaking, political considerations appeared to play a dominant role in Branch practices. Therefore, to understand these practices, it is inevitable that one must not only identify the major political actors, but also illustrate in a general fashion their mode of behaviour. By and large, four groups of political actors were discernible: the minister, civil servants, institutional interest groups, and issue-oriented groups.

As head of the Department, the minister's role in decision-making was absolutely crucial. He approved or disapproved of certain research proposals, and sanctioned or refused to sanction publication of some research findings, including reports. Generally, no important matters or decisions affecting the Department and the Branch were made without either his knowledge or prior approval.

The civil service was equally important, since most of the responsibility to formulate and/or implement policies rested with it. As far as the Branch activities were concerned, the directors' council had a vital role to play.

Thus, the activity of interest groups (whether institutional or issue-oriented) was directed at both the minister and the public service. From the evidence obtained, some of the interest groups, especially the institutional ones, were more able to gain access into the practices of the Branch. In contrast, issue-specific groups were not as successful. Although no definite reasons were found to explain the phenomenon, the literature seemed to suggest that, for the most part, the Canadian political system seems to favour organized interest groups. This is because such bodies are perceived to be permanent and to have expertise on a wide array of subjects, whereas issue-oriented groups are temporary and unorganized. As Pross (1975:2) put it:

> . . . pressure group activity must have continuity if it is to have lasting effect. Common objectives must be identified, strategies worked out, modes of procedures adopted, responsibilities assigned, and consistent positions formulated if a group is to watch over the development and implementation of supporting policies.

These activities naturally require organization, and it is the quality of organization that distinguishes organized interest groups from issue-specific temporary groups, since the latter have a tendency to act as a mob and to depend on chance. They may win clearly stated and immediately realizable goals, but they are often unable to provide for the future, largely because they cannot provide for their own continued existence.

Though interest groups are an almost universal phenomenon, their characteristics and behaviour patterns vary according to their environments. In this connection, Ehrmann (1968:5) observed:

> . . . methods by which pressure groups penetrate parliament will in part be conditioned by the nature of constitutional processes; a parliamentary system, a system in which the separation of powers prevails, a federal system, a unitarian system, will of necessity place the organized interests in a different position.

Thus, the structure and behaviour of pressure groups are functions of the political systems in which they are located. Generally, in Canada, interest group activity is directed at cabinet, since the cabinet is the final decision-making authority in the political system. Interest groups, whether issue-oriented or institutional, all attempt either to secure access to, or embarrass, ministers into compliance.

Perhaps it is in their approach to the administrative arm of government that institutional and issue-oriented groups largely differ in perception and technique. Canadian institutional groups, according to Pross, realize that cabinet authority often devolves on the public service, thereby bringing with it the responsibility for formulation and implementation of policy. The power of such a practice is also augmented by the practice of conducting policy discussions away from public view. This kind of practice encourages cooperation and consultation rather than conflict. As Pross (1975:21) appropriately put it:

> In a system which emphasizes the political responsibility of the Minister, the pressure group and civil service participants in policy formulation prefer to avoid public discussion of issues, relying on cooperation and consultation, rather than on conflicts, to achieve their objectives.

Since cooperation and consultation become important elements in the enterprise, institutional groups have a decided advantage because they can easily be identified and consulted. This naturally puts them in advantageous positions to influence policy. Since issue-oriented interest groups lack the knowledge, the resources, and the longevity to influence officials on a day-to-day basis over an extended period of time, their influence is not often substantial.

The above discussion partly explains why the ATA, ASTA, CASS, and universities, were more involved in Branch activities than were the groups which were issue-oriented. However, it was difficult to explain why political parties, religious organizations, and the Alberta Chamber of Commerce did not figure in the activities of the Branch. A possible explanation is that perhaps these organizations articulated their demands directly to the cabinet. That some groups were more successful in influencing the Branch than were others does not necessarily mean that the rest were ignored. On the contrary, inputs were received from all groups and individuals that cared to make their demands to the Branch. Faced with a barrage of demands, the Branch had to make minor adjustments from time to time in order to accommodate the suggestions and/or demands from different publics around the province. As the Department's handbook (Alberta Government, 1975:A.1) stated:

> While the overall thrust outlined in the discussion paper has remained intact, changes in the structures, programs and procedures of the Branch have taken place in keeping with feedback to the paper and changing provincial priorities. Specific objectives and workplans are reviewed and updated every six months.

Since it is virtually impossible to alter the methods and procedures without affecting the overriding sense of mission, the Branch has tended to be reactive to problems articulated to it by various groups within the environment.

As the foregoing discussion illustrates, a distinction between planning and political activity is probably unattainable, since planning is too closely related to policy and the identification of priorities, and, hence, with politics. In reality, a planning branch, such as the one studied, seldom conforms to procedures of a formal organization. As shown in the handbook, there are always gaps between formally stated objectives and the aims or procedures actually pursued. The discrepancy arises from conflicts of interests which have somehow to be adjudicated, and priorities set and legitimized. In the analyses presented, a few of these discrepancies were identified, and possible reasons for their existence explained. No one of these explanations seemed to hold true in all, or even in most, of the occurrences.

Perhaps the best explanation for the Branch's behaviour was the one provided by Cyert and March (1963:165). Although their framework was not based on planning, it does provide useful hints for explaining the planning process in terms of the variables that affect organizational goals, expectations, and choice. These variables and their relational concepts--the quasi-resolution of conflict, uncertainty avoidance, problemistic search, and organizational learning--form the core of their theory.

In connection with the Branch studied, evidence collected showed that quasi-resolution of conflict was a major preoccupation with it, because its inputs originated from a curious mix of clientele; accordingly, to decide on a course of action, the Branch had to engage in some quasi-resolution of conflicts, although it was not always successful.

The danger inherent in quasi-resolution of conflicts to organization is a real one. For example, it may give rise to confusion, tension, and, at times, might even lead to displacement of goals. On the one hand, it could lead to organizations developing tendencies to look within themselves to find solutions to their problems, thus running the risk of being closed to their external environment. On the other hand, it can become so reactive that an organization loses sight of its original mission. The Branch studied did not fall victim to either of these extremes.

Bacilious (1968:24) felt that conflicts in organizations primarily arise from three sources, namely:

> . . . conflicts over identification and definition of goals . . . . Conflicts over the interpretation of goals or objectives. A third conflict is . . . manifested in conflict over relative emphasis placed on goals and means of their achievement.

Although the Branch attempted to overcome the first two problems by routinizing strategies for selecting research proposals and policy issues, conflicts pertaining to interpretation, the relative emphasis to be placed on different inputs (including the means for achieving them), were not often successfully resolved.

As regards the dimension of uncertainty avoidance, the Branch was particularly careful to avoid political risk-taking. This was achieved by handling problems as and when they occurred, and by having the minister, himself a politician, make the final decisions. Because of its emphasis on short-range problems, it became very visible in the environment. Again, reflecting this stance, one official said that most of their planning was probably 80 per cent short-range and the rest could be characterized as long-range.

Besides uncertainty avoidance, the efforts of the Branch were also problem-oriented. A good number of the research efforts were clearly stimulated by specific problems and the preoccupation was with finding solutions to them. Such efforts were criticized on the grounds that they were not motivated by a search for understanding but were meant to meet political feasibility.

Finally, organizational learning seemed continually to permeate

Branch activities. This was particularly evident in its attempts to accommodate demands articulated to it from time to time. Such attempts often involved modifications on procedures and shifts of emphasis. All these had the effect of influencing original thrusts, thereby making the Branch adaptive to its environmental demands and dictates. All in all, the Cyert and March (1963) thesis appeared to explain adequately both the behaviour and the practices of the Branch.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 5

In this chapter, the analyses of the planning practices of the Branch have been presented, guided by a five-criterion paradigm. The following were the major points brought out criterion by criterion.

Criterion 1

The principal focus of this criterion was the orientation of the Branch planning practices. To probe this orientation, four variables were examined: (1) philosophy on which the planning practices were based; (2) view of education held by the Branch; (3) stance the Branch took to the future; and (4) methods employed for approaching such a future.

The following major points were revealed by the analyses:

1. That the philosophy of the Branch was primarily related to the conceptual and operational integration of policy and developmental research. That, together with information, coordination and management supporting systems, policy development and research constituted the primary components of an effective planning system.

2. That in cognizance of government policy which focusses on societal well-being, the function of the Branch was viewed as that of providing necessary information to enable the Department and the educational system as a whole to maximize their effectiveness and efficiency.

3. That although the Branch performance had generally been satisfactory, its critics thought the scope of its activities could be widened. The current preoccupation with data gathering was considered narrow.

Criterion 2

The major thrust of this criterion was the contact the Branch had with its environment. To ascertain this contact, the following variables were examined: (1) interest groups within the environment; (2) interest aggregation as well as interest articulation; (3) degree of citizen participation; (4) connections between educational planning and planning in other fields; (5) nature of planning practices.

The analyses revealed the following main points:

1. That although no special structure existed on which representatives of various interest groups could participate in Branch activities, four groups appeared successful in articulating their demands. These were: (a) The Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA), (b) The Alberta School Trustees Association (ASTA), (c) The Conference of Alberta Schools Superintendents (CASS), and (d) the university community within the province.

2. That involvement of ordinary citizens in the activities of

the Branch appeared largely relegated to service on advisory committees and task forces.

3. That little evidence existed to show Branch involvement in planning in other fields although such a practice was urged by various groups and endorsed as vital by the Branch.

Criterion 3

The thrust of Criterion 3 was an examination of the type of planning practices undertaken in terms of their duration (time) and quality (quantity as opposed to quality). The following were the major points made:

1. That as far as duration was concerned, the preoccupation of the Branch was largely centred on short-range planning, motivated by data-gathering.

2. That the quality of planning was characterized as a preparation of strategic decisions for policy-makers, administrators, and teachers, rather than the preparation of global plans.

Criterion 4

The principal focus of this criterion was the scope of the planning practices. Specifically, the following variables were examined: (1) the domain of the activities; (2) their dissemination; (3) their implementation; and (4) feedback. The following major points were made:

1. That the practices of the Branch were oriented toward the core program (kindergarten through Grade 12), although periphery activities were certainly not ignored. As far as the core program was

concerned, the thrust was at evaluating and revising programs; determining students' achievement levels in order to establish bench marks of achievement in areas of basic skills at various levels of the school system; and developing teacher behaviours deemed vitally essential for success in reading and language arts.

2. That Branch practices were not confined to particular geographical areas. On the contrary, they covered and affected the whole of the province.

3. That Branch practices also permeated all organizational levels, namely, the technical, the managerial, and the institutional. In connection with the technical level, practices focussed at improving teacher competencies. At the managerial level, efforts were directed at providing decision-makers both in the Department and throughout school districts with information with which to discharge their responsibilities. Finally, at the institutional level, the practices contributed to solutions of some of the problems identified.

Criterion 5

Finally, the thrust of this criterion was an examination of how the Branch related to other administrative processes within the Department. To explore this issue, three variables were examined: (1) connection between planning and other organizational processes; (2) the authority of planners; and (3) impact of the Branch on organization and administration of education in the province. The analyses revealed the following main points:

1. That since the inception of the Branch, it had always been

involved in other organizational processes as well.

2. That although individual Branch planners had the power of their expertise and their position, plus that derived from coalitions made from time to time, all these powers were subordinated to the interests of the Branch in particular, and to those of the Department in general.

3. That the Branch had had some impact on both the organization as well as administration of education in the province.

The chapter concluded with a few tentative remarks on the analyses presented. These remarks attempted to suggest a framework that best described the Branch's behaviour.

In the next chapter, the summary, conclusions, and implications of the study are presented.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the summaries, conclusions, and implications of the study are presented. As well, recommendations for further research are offered, and the chapter concludes with implications for further study.

SUMMARY

This study sought to examine and analyse the planning practices of the Planning and Research Branch of the Alberta Department of Education. The motivation for the endeavour was to gain an understanding of those practices. In order to do so, information was gathered through document search, interviews, and, to some extent, observation.

The documents searched provided information as to the history, philosophy, and general procedures (including the guidelines for the operation) of the Branch.

Interviews were conducted with various individuals around the province (see Appendix A). Since interviews were held with officials working in not only the Department and the Branch but also in other important provincial organizations, the information gathered represented the perceptions of a variety of interested people and organizations about Branch planning practices. While these perceptions included both strong and weak points of the Branch, generally, they were favourable.

Perhaps the one most critical point articulated by certain members of the ATA concerned the need to rid the Branch of government control, which, it was claimed, curbed both the Branch's creativity and its innovativeness.

Several visits made to the Branch enabled the researcher to observe its activities on the spot. The size of the Branch was both an advantage and a disadvantage to this endeavour. It was advantageous in that it was easy to observe the various actors, since they were all situated within easy reach of each other. As a matter of fact, from a position in the secretary's office it was possible to observe the entire Branch at work--officers moving from office to office consulting one another, and so on. The disadvantage of the Branch being so small was that when two or three officers were absent (as they were on several occasions), it was difficult to gain comprehensive impressions of the activities of the Branch. This partly explains why on-the-spot observations as a means of gathering information for this study was later abandoned.

Since the Branch was engaged in a specialized kind of activity --educational planning--it was necessary for the researcher to review pertinent or relevant literature connected with educational planning. This literature revealed that planning endeavours in general tended to be based on the rational-comprehensive model prefaced on such criteria as the need for: (1) an objectively defined set of goals; (2) a statement of all possible alternate courses of action to attain these goals; (3) an evaluation of those courses of action in terms of their efficiency; (4) a selction of that alternative which most nearly optimizes the set of goals; and (5) the assessment of that action, once implemented, in terms of its actual effects upon the overall structure. Besides the rational-comprehensive model, the literature also contained other emerging models, which were basically critiques of the rational-comprehensive model, such criticisms being levelled on the grounds that: (1) The model is élitist in orientation in that it sets the "planner"--the comprehensive adviser--apart from the world he is to "plan." (2) It is centralizing and is based on attempts to know in advance results in pre-ordained behaviourism or self-fulfilling prophecies. Thus, modern planning appeared to be manipulative, requiring the monitoring and control of all observed activity. The success of such kind of planning, therefore, necessitated centralized authority. (3) It is change resistant. The final result of the attempt to know in advance and to control outcomes, is the eventual elimination of all pre-programmed social change.

Two of these emerging models were examined: the evolutionary experimental model and the dialectical model. The central notions in both these models were: (1) that planning should involve the citizenry, and that it is through participation that planning is enriched and creativity promoted; (2) that planning must embrace experimentation without the certainty or probability of results, and that such experimentation must be undertaken with the sole purpose of learning; (3) that planning should not be a downward process only, whereby planners make decisions at the top to be transmitted to the lower levels for implementation; and (4) that the planning process must be the result of a conscientizing dialogue between planners and the citizenry. Thus, expertise should not be the only basis of authority. Rather than striving to be master and manipulator, their efforts should be geared toward equality of all participants, both planners and the laity.

In order to carry out the study, then, it was necessary to have an analytical framework which could be used to select and interpret the data from documents, interviews, and on-the-spot observation. Such an analytical framework could also provide the study with some kind of an end point. Since no such framework was readily available, one had to be developed. In order to obtain some of the perspective necessary to enable development of this framework, the Almond and Powell (1966) criteria for assessing political systems were examined. According to Almond and Powell, in order to study and analyse the conversion processes of a political system, such factors as those listed below may be examined: (1) how demands or interests are articulated; (2) how the demands are combined in the form of alternative courses of action; (3) how the authoritative rules are formulated; (4) how the rules are applied and enforced; (5) how the rules are adjudicated; and (6) how the various activities are communicated (diffused), both within the political system, and in its environment.

In addition to the Almond and Powell criteria, a sketch of the history of educational planning was also examined and presented. This decision was made on two grounds. First, it was realized that some of the Almond and Powell factors were irrelevant, as they focussed more on the supra-system. The Branch being studied was a sub-system of the educational system in the province. Secondly, since the Branch was engaged in a specialized activity, it was necessary to employ a model which bears a relationship to the activity undertaken.

The historical sketch of educational planning that was presented was divided into three parts. The first part covered the period prior to World War II, during which time educational planning was characterized by (1) short-range perspectives; (2) fragmentary coverage of the educational system; (3) non-integration, in the sense that educational organizations were planned autonomously; and that educational planning was (4) non-dynamic in that it assumed an essentially static educational model that retains its main features intact every year.

The second part covered the post-war period (1945-1970), during which time educational systems experienced changes, due largely to the war, in such areas as science and technology, in the economic and demographic spheres, and in politics and culture. These changes gave rise to different styles of planning, varying from country to country, although there were similarities. Four phases of educational planning were generally discernible: (1) the reconstruction phase, (2) the manpower shortage phase, (3) the rampant expansion phase, and (4) the innovative phase.

The third part covered the 1970's. During this period, discussions among educational leaders and economists distilled a new methodology of planning specifically aimed at overcoming some of the problems experienced in the past. This new methodology came to be known as the "Second Generation of Educational Planning," indicating in seven points that educational planning should have the following characteristics:

1. An active orientation to the future.

2. A short-range (one to two years), a medium-range (four to five years), and a long-range (ten to fifteen years) perspective.

3. Be integrated with the plans of broader social and economic development.

4. Be concerned with the qualitative aspects of educational development, and not only with quantitative expansion.

5. Be comprehensive.

6. Be an integral part of educational management

7. Be participative.

The Almond and Powell criteria, and the ingredients of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning," were carefully examined, resulting in a synthesis of the two models and the development of a five-criterion paradigm. This paradigm then formed the analytical framework for analysing the planning practices of the Branch. The components of the paradigm and variables included in each criterion are presented in Figure 15.

Following development of the analytical framework, the activities of the Branch were analysed, as summarized below:

1. The Branch was established to play a service-advisory role --to the education community in general, and to the Department in particular. Its legal status was tied to that of the Department, and its staff was appointed under Section 5(1) of the Department of Education Act. Its power and authority are derived from the minister of education, the deputy minister, the directors' council, and any other director within Alberta education whose branch happens to utilize the consultative or research services of the Branch. This provision

CRITERIA	VARIABLES
Criterion 1	
Orientation or sense of direction	1. Philosophy upon which planning practices are based. 2. View of education as held by the Branch. 3. Stance Branch takes to future. 4. Methods employed for approaching the future.
Criterion 2	
The environment	1. Interest groups within the environment. 2. Interest aggregation and interest articulation. 3. Degree of citizen participation. ✓4. Connections: educational planning vs. planning in other fields. 5. Nature of planning practices.
Criterion 3	
Type of planning in terms of: 1. duration 2. quality	1. Short-range 2. Medium-range 3. Long-range 4. Focus on: 1. quality 2. quantity
Criterion 4	
Scope of branch activities	1. Domain of activities 2. Dissemination 3. Implementation 4. Feedback
Criterion 5	
Connection of planning with other organizational processes	1. Connection between planning and other organizational processes. 2. Authority of planners. 3. Impact of Branch in organization and administration of education around the province.

Figure 15

Paradigm Summary

means that all Branch outputs are subject to approval of the minister.

2. Structurally, the Branch comes directly under the deputy minister, and has two sections. Figure 8 on page 109 depicts the structure of the Branch. The two sections engage in different types of activities. The policy section identifies existing and future problems, and generates policy alternatives for solving administrative as well as instructional problems, while the research section coordinates research in support of policy activities. Branch operations are generally either routine or specialized, depending on the nature of the tasks.

3. The Branch philosophy relates primarily to the conceptual and operational integration of policy development and developmental research. The philosophy is grounded in the belief that policy development and research--together with information, coordination, and management of supporting systems--constitute the primary components of an effective planning system.

4. Although the Branch serves a complex mix of clientele, four groups could be discerned as constituting its major interest groups: (a) The Alberta Teachers' Association, (b) The Alberta School Trustees Association, (c) the council of Alberta Schools Superintendents, and (d) the universities within the province.

Political parties and religious organizations did not appear to make demands directly to the Branch, nor did ordinary citizens.

With the exception of universities, direct involvement of interest groups and ordinary citizens in Branch activities was very slight, mainly because there were no structures and procedures for involving them. Thus, the contact between the Branch and its environment was minimal.

5. Most of the planning undertaken was of a short-range perspective, motivated to a great extent by data gathering. There was little evidence of either long-range or developmental activities. Many of the activities performed were in response to felt problems. Thus, most of the planning endeavour tended to be reactive rather than pro-active. The Cyert and March (1963) thesis appeared to provide a good framework for understanding the practices of the Branch.

In respect to the nature of planning, most practices focussed at improving the quality of decision-making and of classroom instruction. There was scant evidence of linear expansion except in a technical sense.

The scope of the practices embraced both core and periphery activities of the school system, with the thrust directed at (a) evaluating and revising programs; (b) determining students' achievement levels with the aim of establishing bench marks in areas of basic skills; and (c) developing teacher behaviours considered crucial for student success. The focus of periphery activities was in the direction of enriching school activities with work experience.

As far as geographical coverage was concerned, no one particular area was given more attention than another. Proposals for research studies were received from virtually all parts of the province, although, based on the quality of the proposals, only a few of them were selected.

As regards the three organizational levels identified by

Parsons (1960), the Branch practices appeared to affect all of them. For example, at the technical level, the Branch either directly or indirectly influenced the delivery of educational service in various forms through: (a) program evaluation; (b) program revisions; and (c) upgrading teacher competencies. At the managerial level, the Branch outputs proved useful because they provided information to decision-makers. At the institutional level, as well, the Branch had provided important and vital information.

6. The dissemination practices of the Branch were in accordance with government policy which recognizes the right of the people of Alberta to know of and about their government, and that their government has a duty to inform the public of its policies, in plans and actions.

7. The implementation of Branch outputs was generally left to various agencies. The Branch does not, as a rule, get involved but is content to leave facts speak for themselves. Although the Branch does not implement its outputs, the need for feedback information--whether positive or negative--was emphasized. Thus, whatever its nature, the Branch stands to benefit from feedback.

8. The Branch has, since its inception, played a central role in decision-making by providing information to those needing it, and by involving its own staff in decision-making activities.

It can be said that, in general, the Branch has had some impact in the organization and administration of education in the province.

CONCLUSIONS

Following are some conclusions reached as a result of the study findings:

1. Since the Branch is a sub-system of the conversion system of the provincial government, elements incorporated from the Almond and Powell criteria for assessing conversion processes of political systems provided a good basis for assessing and analysing the practices of the Branch. In addition, the ingredients from the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" also helped to orient the analyses toward educational planning. Thus, the synthesis of the two models into the five-criterion paradigm proved not only useful for analysing Branch practices but also showed that the paradigm was well within the ambit of the "Second Generation of Educational Planning."

2. Both the "Second Generation of Educational Planning" and the Branch documents surveyed emphasized the need for citizen involvement in educational planning. However, there was a discrepancy between what was stated on paper and actual practice, since there appeared to be only slight involvement of the citizenry in Branch activities. This was manifest at both the interest articulation level and at the conversion process level. At the articulation stages, issues for research studies were carefully screened to meet political ends; many studies were, in effect, internally initiated. At the conversion process stage, citizenry involvement was relegated to service on advisory committees, steering committees, and, occasionally, on task forces.

3. Some concepts of the systems theory--especially the input,

throughput, output, and feedback dimensions--proved useful in focussing the analyses on the nature and origin of the inputs, the scope of the throughput, the nature of the outputs, and the mechanisms employed for encouraging feedback. All in all, the systems model helped to sharpen the focus of the analyses presented.

4. As evidenced by the analyses, there is no doubt that the Branch is doing a very good job in promoting educational development in the province; however, its orientation toward short-range planning needs some review. Further, there is a need to enhance citizenry involvement in the activities of the Branch.

IMPLICATIONS

The following are implications which arise out of the study.

Analytical Framework (Paradigm)

Like all models, this paradigm had its strengths and limitations. To use a model for analysing practices of a dynamic situation as epitomized or represented by the Branch is quite touchy. In the first instance, it cannot accommodate all changes that take place all the time, although it may help in identifying and classifying some of them. Secondly, it tends to assume a steady state, which is virtually unattainable in a dynamic situation. Perhaps a way out of this dilemma would have been to employ a phenomenological approach. Such a position was rejected on the grounds that it is virtually impossible to undertake a study of this nature without having some guidelines. However, in future, the strengths and limitations of the paradigm should be examined. In addition to the kind of use the paradigm had in this study, it could also be used as:

1. a means for attaining a perspective on certain planning approaches;
2. a basis for developing questions, including criticism, on planning endeavours;
3. a basis for evaluating planning proposals to identify any omissions and/or inconsistencies in criteria or dimension of proposals being evaluated; and
4. a basis for examining current attempts at developing a theory of planning.

Thus, it could be useful to administrators, teachers, planners, organizations, and members of the public, in becoming more sensitive to the nature of criteria that may merit consideration in a planning endeavour.

Planning

One of the reasons given in Chapter 1 for the significance of the study was the need for those engaged in the process of planning to share their experiences as they continue to learn the process. An analytical examination or analysis, like the one presented in this study, could prove invaluable in understanding more about the nature of planning, at least from a practical point of view. Such an understanding might help a society avoid making mistakes such as those which are based entirely on intuition. Thus, this study might help in alleviating the problem of resorting to, or relying upon, intuition only.

Educational Administration

Educators are often pressured into effecting changes to existing structures, even when there appear to be no grounds for such changes. It seems that those demanding change simply want it almost for its own sake. Whereas this investigator is not opposed to changes per se, it is suggested that educators should exercise a certain amount of restraint in effecting alterations to existing structures when they have little or no knowledge about them. It is suggested that careful descriptions, including assessments as to the effectiveness of the structures against which changes are directed, precede the proposed changes and/or revisions. Further, such descriptions might yield vital knowledge regarding the operations of the structures being investigated, and this might aid educators in directing attention to appropriate areas needing it. Secondly, it could prove useful in the process of creating or establishing similar structures elsewhere, should the need arise.

Further Study

1. Since this was simply a descriptive endeavour of the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the practices of the Branch, there remains a need to evaluate the Branch with the aim of determining its effectiveness.

2. There is also a need to check the usefulness and validity of the paradigm by applying it to some other planning units. Such

studies could provide comparisons of practices involving more than one planning unit or agency, and might indicate areas of agreement which may, thereby, facilitate possible generalizations. These generalizations could provide building blocks upon which a theory of planning could be built or further developed.

3. Additionally, there is a need to examine the underlying bases for using a systems model in planning. Such a study should come to grips with possible biases which may limit the usefulness of the systems approach to educational planning. For instance, there is a need to explore how the systems theory can provide for survival of an entity while at the same time ensuring the exploration of alternative futures.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adams, D., ed.
1976 "Educational planning." Journal of the International Society of Educational Planners 2(4) (March):2-3.

Alberta Government
1974 "A discussion paper outlining objectives, procedures, and programs." Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer, 2, 21 ff.

Alberta Government
1975 Handbook: Policies and Procedures. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer, 106-107ff.

Alberta Government
1976a Role in Student Evaluation and Research. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1976b The Seventy-first Annual Report. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977a Annual Research Highlights. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977b A Cost-Benefit Study of the Alberta Correspondence School. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977c Guidelines for Employment of School Superintendents. Edmonton, Alta.: University of Alberta.

Alberta Government
1977d Inventory of Projects in Progress and Completed. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977e Project North Needs Assessment: Task Force Study. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977f Report of the Task Force on the Evaluation of Standardized Achievement Tests for Alberta Schools. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977g School Discipline Study. Edmonton, Alta. University of Alberta.

Alberta Government
1977h School Facility Logistics: A Study for Alberta Education. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977i School Vandalism in Alberta: An Investigation into the Nature, Costs, and Contributing Factors. Lethbridge, Alta.: The University of Lethbridge.

Alberta Government
1977j The Seventy-Second Annual Report. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1978 Inventory of Projects in Progress and Completed. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Teachers' Association
1972 "Memorandum to the Minister of Education." Edmonton, Alta.: The Association, October 19.

Almond, G. A. and G. B. Powell, Jr.
1966 Comparative Politics: A Developmental Approach. Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown.

Alvez, R. A.
1969 A Theology of Human Hope. New York: Corpus Books, p. 165.

Anderson, C. A.
1967 "The social context of educational planning." No. 5 in a series on Fundamentals of Educational Planning. Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.

Anderson, C. A. and M. J. Bowman
1964 "Theoretical considerations in educational planning." In D. Adams, ed., Educational Planning. New York: Syracuse University Press, pp. 8-9.

Anderson, S., ed.
1968 Planning for Diversity and Choice. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press.

Bacilious, Z. F.
1968 "Organizational goals: The problems of goal distortion and displacement. The Canadian Administrator. Edmonton, Alta.: University of Alberta, p. 24.

Banathy, B. A.
1973 Developing a System View of Education: The System Model Approach. Belmont, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, pp. 38, 43.

Beer, S.
1969 "The aborting corporate plan: A cybernetic account of the interface between planning and action." In E. Jantsch, ed., Perspectives of Planning. Paris: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, p. 398.

Benveniste, G.
1970 Bureaucracy and National Planning: A Sociological Case Study in Mexico. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Benveniste, G.
1972 The Politics of Expertise. San Francisco: Glengarry, pp. 31-126.

Berghofer, D. E.
1972 "The futures perspective in educational policy." Edmonton, Alta.: Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation.

Bettelheim, C.
1959 Studies in the Theory of Planning. Bombay: Asia Publishing.

Boguslaw, R.
1965 The New Utopians: A Study of System Design and Social Change. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Bolan, Richard
1967 "Emerging views of planning." Journal of the American Institute of Planners, 33(4) July.

Callaway, A.
1971 Educational Planning and Unemployed Youth. Paris: UNESCO.

Chan, T. N.
1969 Demographic Aspects of Educational Planning. Paris, UNESCO.

Chin, R. and K. D. Benne
1969 "General strategies for effecting changes in human systems." In W. G. Bennis, K. D. Benne, R. Chin, and K. E. Corey, eds., The Planning of Change. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, p. 44.

Conway, J. A., R. E. Jennings, and M. M. Milstein
1974 Understanding Communities. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, p. 54.

Coombs, P. H.
1967 "What do we still need to know about educational planning? In the World Yearbook of Education, 1967. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, pp. 17-18.

Coombs, P. H.
1970 What is Educational Planning? Paris: UNESCO, pp. 14-50.

Cook, D. L.
1971 Educational Project Management. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, p. 32.

Cyert, R. M. and J. G. March
1963 A Behavioral Theory of the Firm. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, p. 165.

Dahl, R.
1959 "The politics of planning." International Social Science Journal 11:341-350.

Davidoff, P.
1965 "Advocacy and pluralism in planning." American Institute of Planners 31:331-337.

Davis, R. C.
1966 Planning Human Resource Development: Educational Models and Schematics. Chicago: Rand McNally.

de Chardin, P. T.
1965 The Phenomenon of Man. New York: Harper and Row.

Dermer, J.
1977 Management Planning and Control Systems: Advanced Concepts and Cases. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin.

Dror, Y.
1963 "The planning process: A facet design." International Review of Administrative Sciences 29(1):46-58.

Dror, Y.
1968 Public Policymaking Reexamined. Scranton, Pa.: Chandler.

Dunn, Edgar
1971 Economic and Social Development: A Social Learning Process. Baltimore, Md.: The Johns Hopkins Press.

Easton, David
1957 "An approach to the analysis of political systems." World Politics (April):390.

Easton, David
1965 A Systems Analysis of Political Life. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Ehrmann, H. E., ed.
1958 Interest Groups on Four Continents. Pittsburgh, Pa.:

University of Pittsburgh Press, p. 5.

Eide, K.
1964 "The organization of educational planning." In D. Adams, ed., Educational Planning. New York: Syracuse University Press, p. 80.

Enns, F.
1966 "Perception." The Canadian Administrator. Edmonton, Alta.: University of Alberta, p. 1.

Etzioni, A.
1968 The Active Society: A Theory of Societal and Political Processes. New York: Free Press.

Etzioni, A.
1971 "Groups and organizations." In B. L. Hinton and H. J. Reitz, eds., Integrated Readings in the Analysis of Social Behavior. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, p. 475.

Ewing, D. W.
1968 The Practice of Planning. New York: Harper and Row, pp. 17-18.

Fanon, F.
1963 The Wretched of the Earth. New York: Grone Press, p. 253.

Freire, P.
1968 Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: Herder and Herder, p. 126.

Friedman, J.
1967 "A conceptual model for the analysis of planning behavior." Administrative Science Quarterly 12:225-252.

Fromm, E.
1959 The Sane Society. New York: Rinehart.

Gilbert, E. and J. W. Eaton
1970 "Who speaks for the poor?" American Institute of Planners 36(6).

Glass, R.
1959 "The evaluation of planning: Some sociological considerations." International Social Science Journal 11:393-409.

Good, C. V. and D. E. Scates
1954 Methods of Research. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, p. 726.

Grabow, S. and A. Heskin
1973 "Foundations for a radical concept of planning." Journal of the American Institute of Planners 39 (March):50-57.

Green, Thomas, ed.
1971 Educational Planning in Perspective. Surrey: Futures/I.P.C. Science and Technology Press, pp. 6-10.

Green, Thomas
1969 "Schools and communities: A look forward." Harvard Educational Review 39(2) (Spring).

Grinker, R. R.
1956 Toward a Unified Theory of Human Behavior. New York: Basic Books, p. 370.

Gross, B. M.
1964 "National planning: Some fundamental questions." The American Behavioral Scientist 8:7-15.

Gurvitch, G.
1962 Dialectique et Sociologie. Paris: Flammarion.

Hall, A. D. and R. E. Fagen
1956 "Definition of system." General Systems 1:18.

Hall, R. H.
1972 Organizations: Structure and Process. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, p. 297.

Harbison, F.
1967 Educational Planning and Human Resources Development. Paris: UNESCO, p. 22.

Havelock, R. G.
1970 Planning for Innovation Through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, pp. 22-34.

Herrick, N. Q., S. Bartholomew and J. Brandt
1976 "Social experimentation and the changing world of work." In W. G. Bennis, K. D. Benne, R. Chin, and K. E. Corey, eds., The Planning of Change. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, p. 218.

Immegart, G. L. and F. J. Pilecki
1973 An Introduction to Systems for the Educational Administrator. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, pp. 36-155.

Jantsch, E.
1967 Technological Forecasting in Perspective. Paris: UNESCO.

Judy, R. W.
1970 "Quantitative planning techniques in perspective." In J. A. Riffel and E. Miklos, eds., Social Goals, Educational Priorities and Dollars: Planning Education in the Seventies. Edmonton, Alta.: Proceedings of the Invitational Conference on Educational Planning, HRRC and CCRE, pp. 115-122.

Kahn, Alfred J.
1969a Theory and Practice of Social Planning. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, p. 17.

Kahn, Alfred J.
1969b Studies in Social Policy and Planning. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, p. 61.

Katz, D.
1971 "The motivational basis of organization behavior. In B. L. Hinton and H. J. Reitz, eds., Groups and Organizations: Integrated Readings in the Analysis of Social Behavior. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, p. 412.

Kaufman, Roger A.
1972 Educational Systems Planning. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, pp. 1-4.

Kerlinger, F. N.
1965 Foundations of Behavioral Research: Educational and Psychologcial Inquiry. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, p. 467.

Kuhn, Thomas
1962 The Structure of Scientific Revolutions. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lasswell, H.
1951 "The policy orientation." In D. Lerner and H. D. Lasswell, eds., The Policy Sciences. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press.

Lindblom, C. E.
1959 "The science of muddling through." Public Administration Review 19:79-88.

Lyons, R. F.
1967 "The training and use of educational planning personnel." In C. Watson, ed., Educational Planning. Edmonton: Proceedings of the Invitational Converence held at OISE, pp. 67-71.

Machiavelli, Niccolo
1952 The Prince. New York: Mentor Books, reprint., p. 127.

Marcuse, Herbert
1969 An Essay on Liberation. Boston, Mass.: Beacon, pp. 37-38.

McCall, G. J. and J. L. Simmons
1969 Issues in Participant Observation: A Text and Reader. Reading, Pa.: Addison-Wesley, p. 4.

McGrath, G. D., J. J. Jelinek and R. E. Wochner
1963 Educational Research Methods. New York: Ronald Press, 154.

Mehrens, W. A. and I. J. Lehmann
1973 Measurement and Evaluation in Education and Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, p. 4.

McHale, J.
1969 The Future of the Future. New York: George Braziller.

Miklos, E.
1972 "The context of educational planning." In E. Miklos, P. Bourgette, and S. Cowley, eds., Perspectives on Educational Planning. Edmonton, Alta. Human Resources Research Council, pp. 4-13.

Miklos, E. and P. Bourgette
1972 "Toward a concept of educational planning." In E. Miklos, P. Bourgette, and S. Cowley, eds., Perspectives on Educational Planning. Edmonton, Alta.: Human Resources Research Council, pp. 46-169.

Miller, J. G.
1959 "Toward a general theory for the behavioral sciences." Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill.

Miller, J. G.
1965 "Living systems: Structure and process." Behavioral Science 10(4) (October):367.

Moore, B. D.
1973 "Two approaches to planning: Freire and Worth." Edmonton, Alta.: Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation.

Moore, W. E.
1966 "The utility of utopias." American Sociological Review 31: 765-772.

Morphet, Edgar L., et al.
1971 Planning and Providing for Excellence in Education. New York: Citation Press, p. 36.

Moses, S.
1971 "Towards a new conceptual framework for educational policy." Syracuse, N.W.; Educational Policy Research Center, Syracuse University Research Corporation, p. 1. (unpublished paper)

Myrdal, G.
1968 Asian Drama: An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations, 3 vols. New York: Pantheon, Random House, pp. 1810-1814.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
1971a "Educational policies, plans and forecasts during the nineteen sixties and seventies." Background Study No. 5, Conference on Policies for Educational Growth. Paris: OECD.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
1971b "Basic paper on educational planning, policy and administration." (CERI/EG/DM/70-12). Paris: OECD, pp. 1-10.

Parsons, T.
1956 "Suggestions for a sociological approach to the theory of organization." Administrative Science Quarterly 1 (June):64-67.

Parsons, T.
1967 Structure and Process in Modern Societies. London: Collier-Macmillan, pp. 60-65.

Perrow, C.
1972 Complex Organizations: A Critical Essay. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, p. 166.

Petrovic, G.
1963 "Man as economic animal and man as praxis." Inquiry 6:53.

Petrovic, G.
1965 "Man and freedom." In E. Fromm, ed., Socialist Humanism. New York: Doubleday, p. 250.

Poignant, R.
1967 The Relation of Educational Plans to Economic and Social Planning. Paris: UNESCO, pp. 36-40.

Pross, A. P.
1975 Pressure Group Behaviour in Canadian Politics. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, p. 182.

Richardson, S. A., B. S. Dobrenwend and D. Klein
1965 Interviewing: Its Forms and Functions. New York: Basic Books, p. 40.

Riffel, J. A.
1971 "Optimal model of the educational planning process." In Educational Planning Reexamined. Edmonton, Alta.: Human Resources Research Council, p. 11.

Riffel, J. A., E. J. Ingram and H. J. Dyck
1970 The Challenge of the Seventies: Planning Education for the Decades Ahead. A Mission Proposal. Edmonton, Alta.: Human Resources Research Council, pp. 2-23.

Ross, B.
1970 "Is planning a revolution?" In Steven E. Deutsch and John Howard, eds., Where Its At: Radical Perspectives in Sociology. New York: Harper & Row, pp. 217-227.

Sergiovanni, T. J. and F. D. Carver
1974 The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration. New York: Dodd, Mead, p. 215.

Silverman, D.
1970 The Theory of Organizations. London: Heinemann, p. 57.

Stringham, B. L.
1974 "The School Act, 1970: A case study of public policymaking in education." Edmonton, Alta.: University of Alberta, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, pp. 24-27.

Stufflebeam, D. I., et al.
1971 Educational Evaluation and Decision Making. Itasca, Ill.: Peacock, p. 218.

Thomas, W. I.
1966 On Social Organization and Social Personality. In selected papers edited by M. Janowitz. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, p. 301.

Turney, B. L. and G. P. Robb
197. Research in Education: An Introduction. Hinsdale, Ill.: Dryden Press, p. 64.

Vaisey, J. and J. D. Chesswas
1967 The Costing of Educational Plans. Paris: UNESCO.

Webber, Melvin
1963 "The prospects for policies planning." In R. Duhl, ed., The Urban Condition. New York: Basic Books, p. 320.

Weiler, H. N.
1977 "Educational planning." Paper delivered at a conference held at Stanford University, pp. 10-16. (unpublished)

Weingarten, Charles
1974 "Schools and the future." In Theodore W. Hipple, ed., The Future of Education: 1975-2000. Pacific Palisades, Hawaii: Goodyear, p. 184.

Worth, Walter
1972 Commission on Educational Planning: A Choice of Futures. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer for Alberta, pp. 1-225.

Ziegler, Warren
1970 "The future of education: Who speaks for mankind?" Paper prepared for the Congress on the Future: Education. Edmonton, Alta.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE #1

(This interview guide was administered to selected individuals outside the Branch)

1. What is your name?

2. What position do you occupy in your present organization?

3. How long have you been acquainted with, or involved in, the activities of the Branch?

4. Are there formal and institutional structures through which you maintain a contact with the Branch?

5. Specifically, what activities of the Branch have you been involved in?

6. Does your organization contribute to the goals of the Branch?

   If so, how is it done?

7. In your view, does the Branch serve an important function in the development of education in this province? If not, why not?

8. What is the nature of the outputs that come from the Branch?

9. How are these outputs implemented?

   Does your organization get involved in this implementation?

10. Does the Branch encourage feedback on its activities? If not, why not?

If the answer is in the affirmative, can you suggest the reasons why it encourages feedback?

11. In your view, what is the scope of the activities of the Branch?

- Should they be doing less or more? and why?

12. What, in your view, led to the creation of this Branch?

13. What impact has the Branch had on the administration of education in the province?

Has planning been accepted as good and necessary?

14. What methods does the Branch employ for re-orienting people to its activities?

15. In your view, is the planning undertaken in the Branch connected with planning in other fields? Should it be, or should it not be?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE #2

(This interview schedule was administered to the officials of the Branch and the Department of Education)

(A) BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What is your name?
2. What is your educational background?
3. What positions did you hold before you joined the Branch?
4. What special duties do you perform for the Branch?
5. How long have you been working for the Branch?

(B) HISTORICAL AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. When was the Branch established?
2. What conditions and circumstances, in your view, led to the creation of the Branch?
3. Was the creation of the Branch meant to solve a perceived crisis in the educational development of this province?
4. Does the Branch base its activities on a philosophy, and, if so, on what philosophy?
5. Are your planning activities future-oriented? If so, what techniques do you use for achieving your objectives?
6. Do you involve the various groups or organizations within the province in your activities? If so, how is this done? For example, do you have formal institutional structures and procedures for involving them?
7. In this connection, too, can you identify the major interest groups that continually make demands to your Branch?
8. What effects does the federal constitution have on your activities?
9. Is your planning connected with planning in other fields? e.g. economic planning, social planning, etc.?

10. What kind of planning, in terms of its duration, do you engage in, and why? (short-range, medium-range, long-range)

11. What do you focus on principally--quantitative or qualitative planning? and why?

12. What is the scope of your planning activities? Core? Periphery? Do you plan for the whole province? If not, are there other structures within the province that carry out educational planning?

13. To what extent do your plans depend on national goals?

14. In this connection, what are the overall goals of your Branch?

15. How were these goals decided upon?

16. Do government bodies outside your Branch form interest groups with substantial impact on your activities?

17. What are the formal positions or structures within your Branch?

18. What relationships exist between your Branch and the provincial government as a whole?

19. How are decisions made within your Branch? Routine?

    Specialized?

20. Does the Branch have definite channels for either consulting or involving pressure groups during the decision-making process?

21. To what extent are political parties involved in the planning activities of the Branch?

22. To what extent does the Branch resist political pressure or demands on "technical" or other grounds?

23. What devices does the Branch employ for recognizing and handling friction among various publics and interest groups?

24. What technique does the Branch use for handling conflicts in the planning process?

25. To what extent does the Branch make use of available technology for carrying out its activities?

26. What is the nature of the outputs that accrue from your Branch?

27. How do you ensure that these outputs are consistent, or in keeping

with the laws of Canada? For example, are your plans or outputs subject to administrative, parliamentary, or judicial approval?

28. What channels do you employ to disseminate the outcomes of your endeavours?

29. How do you ensure the implementation of your plans? e.g. . . .

30. What structures and procedures does the Branch employ to:

(a) monitor people's perceptions and reactions to your plans?

(b) encourage feedback?

(c) expedite action on feedback information?

APPENDIX B

LIST OF OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS STUDIED

Alberta Government
1970 School Act. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1974 "A discussion paper outlining objectives, procedures, and programs." Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1975 Handbook: Policies and Procedures. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1975-1976 The Seventy-first Annual Report. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1976-1977 The Seventy-second Annual Report. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977a A Cost-Benefit Study of the Alberta Correspondence School. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977b Annual Research Highlights. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977c Guidelines for Employment of School Superintendents. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977d Inventory of Projects in Progress and Completed. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977e Project North Needs Assessment: Task Force Study. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977f Mobile Home Study. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977g School Facility Logistics: A Study for Dealing with School Planning, Acquisition, and Funding Alternatives. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977h School Discipline Study. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977j School Vandalism in Alberta: An Investigation into the Nature, Costs, and Contributing Factors. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

Alberta Government
1977k Student Evaluation: Roles in Student Evaluation and Research. Edmonton, Alta.: Queen's Printer.

APPENDIX C

LIST OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED

1. Albaiston, M.
Humanities Coordinator
Lethbridge School Board
Lethbridge, Alta.

2. Bevan, G.
Director of Curriculum
Lethbridge School Board
Lethbridge, Alta.

3. Blowers, T.A., Director
Research and Evaluation
Edmonton Public School Board
Edmonton, Alta.

4. Bride, K. W., Coordinator
Professional Development
Alberta Teachers' Association
Edmonton, Alta.

5. Chamchuk, N. J., Director
Communications Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

6. Church, E. J. M., Director
Special Educational Services Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

7. Cox, P. J., Executive Secretary
Alberta Teachers' Association
Edmonton Local
Edmonton, Alta.

8. Duke, W. R., Director
Finance and Statistics Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

9. Earle, J. A.,
Director of Education
Calgary Separate School Board
Calgary, Alta.

10. Eddy, W. P., Consultant Research
Planning and Research Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

11. Fenske, M. R., Director
Planning and Research Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

12. Hales, G., President
Alberta Teachers' Association
Lethbridge Local
Lethbridge Collegiate Inst.
Lethbridge, Alta.

13. Hathaway, W., Policy Consultant
Planning and Research Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

14. Hill, L., Associate Director Policy
Planning and Research Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

15. Hrabi, J. S., Associate Deputy Minister (Instruction)
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

16. Jeary, D., President
Alberta Teachers' Association
Calgary Local
Calgary, Alta.

17. Kesler, I., Planning Assist.
Edmonton Public School Board
Edmonton, Alta.

18. Maertz, S. G., Executive Director
Alberta School Trustees Association
Edmonton, Alta.

19. Meek, C. (on special assignment)
Planning and Research Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

20. Miklos, E., Professor
Department of Educational
Administration
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alta.

21. Mills, L. G.
Calgary School Board
Calgary, Alta.

22. Myhre, A., Past President
Conference of Alberta Schools
Superintendents
Edmonton, Alta.

23. Lemay, B., Executive Secretary
Alberta Teachers' Association
Catholic Local
Edmonton, Alta.

24. Proudfoot, A., Chairman
Calgary School Board;
Professor, University of
Calgary; and
Past President
Alberta School Trustees
Association
Calgary, Alta.

25. Reid, J. E., Director
Student Evaluation and Data
Processing Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

26. Ricard, M., Director
Public Communications
Communications Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

27. Roberts, W. G., Professor
University of Calgary
Calgary, Alta.

28. Sherk, H., Associate
Director Research
Planning and Research Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

29. Torgunrud, E. A., Director
Curriculum Branch
Department of Education
Edmonton, Alta.

30. Wilson, G., President
Conference of Alberta Schools
Superintendents
Three Hills School District
Three Hills, Alta.

31. Worth, W., Dean
Faculty of Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alta.